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ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL DRUG CONTROL PROGRAMME

Report of the Executive Director

Summary

The present report describes the activities of the United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) during 1994.

The first section focuses on country-level activities undertaken by UNDCP in support of drug control efforts of individual Governments. Progress in the development of drug control master plans is considered, given their importance as a basis for a coordinated and coherent international effort.

The subject of the second section is regional or subregional activities, which have emerged as the most effective means of overcoming cross-border drug-related problems. UNDCP cooperation with regional organizations during 1994 is summarized, and region-specific forecasts of illicit drug trends are provided.

In the third section, activities at the global level are examined. UNDCP efforts to establish a global legislative framework able to provide the legal coherence required for success in the field of drug control are reviewed; efforts to coordinate drug control activities launched by the United Nations system are considered; and UNDCP activities in demand and supply reduction and in research are described. An overview of research and scientific initiatives undertaken in 1994 is also given.

The fourth section provides a detailed overview of evaluation activities in 1994. It describes developments with regard to evaluation policy and the main conclusions of thematic and project evaluations undertaken during the year. Follow-up to evaluations conducted in 1993 is also summarized.

The fifth section summarizes financial trends which gave reason for concern in 1994, as it became increasingly clear that unless more resources were allocated to UNDCP, funding requirements would exceed available resources, not only in 1994 but for the foreseeable future. An update of administrative changes at UNDCP during 1994 is also provided.

The sixth section sets out UNDCP strategy on how to deal with the growing gap, based on current trends, between expenditure and income projections, and summarizes the main elements of the UNDCP resource mobilization strategy.

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INTRODUCTION

1. The year 1994 brought to the fore a central dilemma in the field of international drug control. It reaffirmed that the rapid integration of domestic goods and financial markets were having a marked effect on the nature and extent of the world's illicit drug problems. In effect, the task before the United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) lay in helping to reverse a negative trend - the global spread of illicit drug production, trafficking, and consumption - while supporting one of its indirect causes, global interdependence.
2. The solution to the above-mentioned dilemma has long been recognized: in order to successfully tackle a problem that transcends national borders, there can be no effective alternative to international cooperation. Thus, in 1994, UNDCP continued to carry out its activities in full recognition of the need to bring countries as well as international agencies together in the fight against illicit drugs.
3. Drug-related trends are showing with disturbing clarity that social, economic and political, as well as environmental, scientific and psychological factors have a bearing on the extent and nature of the illicit drug problem. Only through a broader, multisectoral approach, involving Governments and all entities of the United Nations system - including the international financial institutions - can the drug problem be contained.
4. The year 1994 provided much reason for concern. But in a certain respect, a gradual yet noticeable momentum also emerged. The following sections provide insight into this welcome progress as reflected in the activities of UNDCP.
5. As in past years, UNDCP shaped its activities on the basis of a three-tiered strategic pyramid. National programmes, founded on drug control master plans, represented the base of the pyramid; emphasis was placed on strengthening institutional and legislative frameworks for the planning and implementation of drug control initiatives. Regional and subregional programmes formed the next layer of strategic priority, as UNDCP sought to bring Governments together in addressing shared drug-related problems. And finally, global priorities represented the uppermost layer of the strategic pyramid; UNDCP continued to promote and assist in the ratification and full implementation of the international drug control conventions, and it also pursued its role as a coordinator of drug control activities of the United Nations system.
6. The present report includes extensive coverage of UNDCP evaluation activities undertaken during 1994. An analysis of the financial situation of UNDCP points to a projected funding gap in coming years.

I. COUNTRY-LEVEL ACTIVITIES

A. Country update

Africa

7. In 1994, a total of 4.5 million United States dollars (\$) was allocated to Africa. UNDCP interventions in Africa focused on: demand reduction (36 per cent of the total allocation); institution-building (29 per cent); training (10 per cent); and legal assistance (5 per cent). Multisectoral initiatives accounted for 20 per cent of the total allocated to Africa in 1994.

8. In the area of demand reduction, UNDCP has launched a series of rapid assessment surveys in Africa. The first such survey was completed in Cameroon in October 1994, in cooperation with the World Health Organization (WHO), and will be followed by other surveys in Chad, Congo and Gabon (budget of \$298,320). Similar surveys are being planned in Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria and Tunisia. As regards prevention, UNDCP continues to develop awareness campaigns through the preparation and display of appropriate information materials. Prevention-oriented activity has been undertaken in Nigeria, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia. In 1994, UNDCP supported the production of country-specific prevention materials in 27 countries. UNDCP is also encouraging Governments to introduce preventive education in school curricula.

9. While progress has been made in recent years, it is still clear that many African Governments are not yet fully equipped to create an enabling environment for drug control. UNDCP is addressing this problem, *inter alia*, by assisting Governments in the creation of coordinating bodies - institution-building remains one of its top priorities. Through another initiative (budget of \$561,700), UNDCP has assisted 11 Governments in central Africa in the development of interministerial coordinating bodies. At present, nine of those Governments have created interministerial committees in charge of drug coordination and policy matters. In West Africa, six governments have formally established such organs. A newly approved UNDCP-funded project (budget of \$4,032,123 for the period 1994 to 1997) will accelerate the establishment of similar institutions for the 16 countries of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS).

10. Given the undeveloped anti-narcotics institutional base in many African countries, training is a priority. In addition to the training components contained in most of the ongoing supply and demand reduction projects, UNDCP initiatives in West Africa currently provide for intensive training coupled with institution-building, that is, the development of a pool of trainers in each of the 16 countries concerned. To that end UNDCP started in 1994 to take full advantage of the facilities of the government training centre in Côte d'Ivoire. UNDCP is supporting the training of West African officials at the Abidjan Training Centre. In nine countries in eastern and southern Africa, UNDCP is providing technical expertise through national and subregional projects designed to enable officials to carry out drug interdiction programmes. In tandem with institution-building and training, UNDCP continues to equip national interdiction services with appropriate transport and communications materials.

11. UNDCP assistance in the legal field aims at enabling Governments to develop and implement updated legislation and to comply with the requirements of the international drug control conventions. To that end, UNDCP has provided Governments in western and central Africa with comprehensive model laws as a basis for developing appropriate national drug control laws leading to an internationally cohesive legislative system. Assistance has been provided to the following countries in the process of preparing or revising their laws: Cape Verde, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Mauritius, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia. Also noticeable were UNDCP endeavours to develop cooperation among countries for investigation of drug-trafficking cases and prosecution of offenders. In that context, UNDCP organized a legal workshop, held at Pretoria in November 1994, on subregional cooperation against drug trafficking. Thirteen countries were represented. The issue of corruption was addressed at ministerial level and practical measures were devised to deal with it. The meeting was concluded with a statement by ministers and heads of delegations emphasizing the commitment of their Governments to take further concrete steps against corruption and drug trafficking.

Asia and the Pacific

12. In 1994, a total of \$29.8 million was allocated to Asia and the Pacific. UNDCP priorities in Asia centred on: tackling illicit supply and production with development-oriented strategies (33.5 per cent of the total allocation); developing multisectoral interventions needed to confront diverse manifestations

of the illicit drug problem (33 per cent); strengthening government capabilities for drug control (19.4 per cent); and increasing assistance in demand reduction (14.5 per cent).

13. UNDCP led the first comprehensive ground survey on the extent of opium production in Afghanistan during the 1993/94 season. The survey revealed a substantial increase in production of opium over the 1992/93 estimate of 2,000 tonnes, indicating that Afghanistan may turn out to be the world's largest producer of illicit opium. Illicit drug concerns have been highlighted in the Secretary-General's priority agenda for Afghanistan. UNDCP continues its preventive education programmes in that country, with greater emphasis placed on drug awareness creation through community participation.

14. In Thailand, UNDCP has phased out its direct support to alternative development (\$10 million) in northern Thailand after many years of assistance focused, *inter alia*, on strengthening domestic drug control capabilities. UNDCP support contributed to a substantial reduction in opium production from 150 tonnes in 1972/73 to some 12 tonnes in the 1993/94 season. This improvement allows UNDCP to shift its focus to strengthening law enforcement (including money-laundering legislation) and demand reduction activities.

15. In Myanmar, an increasing number of non-governmental organizations are operating in demand reduction activities. UNDCP is exploring possibilities of working together with them in the areas of outreach preventive education as well as training of health professionals in drug treatment centres. The Government officially approved a project (budget of \$348,085) to provide support to the Wa community to eliminate poppy cultivation through alternative development; project implementation began in November 1994. Close cooperation exists between UNDCP and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in alternative development project areas (budget of \$6.9 million), where UNICEF provides water piping, basic health care, sanitation and immunization programmes. UNDCP support is foreseen for the establishment of a new government drug control administration.

16. In Pakistan, UNDCP continues its alternative development programme in the Northwest Frontier Province (budget of \$15.4 million), combining supply reduction and law enforcement approaches in accordance with government policy. A recent government survey of the prevalence of drug abuse indicated a drastic increase in the number of drug abusers in general, and of heroin abusers in particular. The survey estimates the numbers of drug abusers to be 3 million, including about 1.5 million heroin abusers. The results will provide baseline data for the development of a national master plan for drug control, initiated with UNDCP support. UNDCP has also provided technical support to the Government in developing integrated demand reduction activities (budget of \$3.9 million), including the establishment and training of community intervention teams and an awareness creation programme involving non-governmental organizations.

17. In India, the Government, with UNDCP support, has drafted a national drug control master plan. UNDCP has also assisted the Government in undertaking rapid assessments to determine the prevalence, extent and nature of drug abuse in areas deemed to be most affected. Through a multi-tier training plan, law enforcement capabilities will be strengthened in 1995. A similar training plan in drug demand reduction has been developed for government agencies and non-governmental organizations.

18. In 1994, an assessment of non-governmental organizations involved in drug demand reduction was completed in Nepal. The results will allow for the selection of appropriate agencies for the implementation of drug demand reduction programmes. In Bangladesh, a review of the plans for law enforcement and demand reduction were completed in August 1994. The review identified a number of institutional weaknesses; follow-up action is being initiated to bridge the gap through awareness-raising and appropriate training programmes. In Sri Lanka, an evaluation of the ongoing

demand reduction project at the end of 1994 has provided a valuable input to the formulation of projects identified in the national master plan.

19. In 1994, UNDCP started its assistance to Cambodia in the priority areas identified by the Government, following the recommendations of the 1993 UNDCP fact-finding mission. Two missions were organized, one to advise on drug policy and legislation, and another to discuss with the Government the establishment of a drug abuse monitoring system through the Ministry of Health. WHO took part in the latter mission. Cambodia decided to participate in the UNDCP South-East Asia subregional arrangement (see paragraph 54 below).

20. In China, law enforcement capabilities in Yunnan Province are being strengthened through the provision of equipment as well as the identification of training needs. Law enforcement officers in the border areas of China and Myanmar have started to establish a regular information exchange system for closer cooperation. In the border town of Ruili, project implementation teams for demand reduction activities have been established and villages selected, and training has been held on the organization and monitoring of community-based prevention, treatment and rehabilitation activities.

21. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the UNDCP-funded alternative development pilot project in Palaveck (budget of \$6.1 million) has virtually eliminated opium cultivation in the project area - from 3.5 tonnes to less than 400 kilograms in the 1993/94 season. The project also provides an effective model for highland alternative development that can be replicated elsewhere in that country. Implementation of the comprehensive plan for drug control in the Lao People's Democratic Republic commenced following its approval in March 1994. The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) provides agricultural loans to Xieng Khouang Province to complement UNDCP alternative development projects in the same area, including road construction and community development (budget of \$6 million).

22. In Viet Nam, UNDCP is providing extensive support to the development of a national drug control master plan (budget of \$418,000). UNDCP participated in a mission coordinated by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in July 1994 to develop a national programme against the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). Viet Nam also sees the prospect of participating as a member in the UNDCP South-East Asia subregional arrangement. UNDCP is coordinating its input with WHO in drug abuse prevention. It addresses the issue of illicit cultivation in Viet Nam through its participation in the inter-agency working groups on ethnic minority development, environmental conservation and sustainable development. The aim is to establish practical linkages between opium poppy substitution programmes and rural socio-economic development initiatives launched by agencies such as UNDP, UNICEF and the World Food Programme. The 1994 UNDP budget allocation for the Asia and Pacific region amounted to \$28.5 million.

Europe and the Middle East

23. In 1994, a total of \$6.7 million was allocated to Europe and the Middle East. UNDCP allocated funds to: multisectoral activities (40 per cent of the total allocation); supply reduction (36 per cent); control measures (20 per cent); legal assistance (2.5 per cent); and demand reduction (1.5 per cent).

24. UNDCP strategy focused on enhancing coordination among Governments in the planning and funding of drug control initiatives, launching multisectoral initiatives which would address drug-related problems from a comprehensive package of assistance, and ensuring that drug control interventions were developed in line with the balanced approach adopted by UNDCP.

25. Two new field offices have been opened at Riga and at Beirut, in addition to the regional office at Tashkent. Twelve projects were completed in 1994, and nine pipeline projects for UNDCP assistance were selected for the region embracing the Baltic States, central Europe, Belarus, Russian Federation, Ukraine, central Asian States of the Commonwealth of Independent States and the Middle East.

26. In the Baltic States, UNDCP concentrated on the development of national legal and institutional frameworks for drug control. Institution-building was seen as a prerequisite for the implementation of sound and comprehensive drug control assistance packages, and thus a \$1.3 million immediate assistance project was implemented in 1994. A demand reduction project supporting the creation of a rehabilitation centre for drug addicts was also carried out in 1994.

27. In central and eastern Europe, an assessment mission to Albania in May 1994 laid the ground for future cooperation with the Government of Albania. Assistance will focus on the establishment of a drug control coordination administration and the elaboration of a drug control strategy. A multiyear project (budget of \$1.8 million) signed with the Government of Turkey will assist the Government in: strengthening individual law enforcement agencies; improving coordination at the national level; supporting demand reduction activities; and fostering subregional cooperation with neighbouring States of the Commonwealth of Independent States, as well as with Lebanon and the Syrian Arab Republic. In Slovakia, a new project was launched with the aim of strengthening the national drug control authorities. Various projects were completed in Bulgaria, Greece and Malta; a new demand reduction project was designed for the Czech Republic (assessment of drug abuse); and the implementation of three regional projects was continued.

28. In the Commonwealth of Independent States, assistance in drafting modern legislation is under way in seven countries. Implementation of multisectoral projects started in July 1994 in Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan and similar projects were launched in Belarus and Ukraine, each amounting to approximately \$500,000. The visit of the Executive Director to Central Asia in May 1994 (Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan) and meetings with top level policy makers in all four countries facilitated identification of further areas of assistance with a view to the formulation of new drug control projects. Based on subsequent technical exchanges, project documents on improvement of control measures and on demand reduction are being formulated for the entire subregion. UNDCP carried out a programming mission to Armenia and Georgia in November 1994, the outcome of which formed the basis for the development of UNDCP technical assistance in institution-building as well as appropriate law enforcement.

29. In 1994, UNDCP concentrated on Lebanon through the execution of three projects which accounted for about 41 per cent of the \$10.9 million allocation for the region for the 1994-1995 biennium. The projects aimed at establishing a legal drug control institutional framework, promoting area development programmes in the Bekaa Valley to prevent reversion to illicit cultivation, and at the same time strengthening the Lebanese authorities in the detection of illicit crops through remote sensing technology. Future assistance to the country will concentrate on promoting demand reduction activities and the enhancement of the role of Lebanese non-governmental organizations. The second phase of the Baalbek-Hermel Integrated Area Development Programme will commence at the end of 1995, and will last for two years. UNDCP provided legal and drug law enforcement assistance to the Syrian Arab Republic to assist the country in its endeavour against illicit drug trafficking, and has also assisted Yemen in enhancing drug control operational capacities through targeted training activities. Following the programming mission to Gaza in September 1994, UNDCP formulated an assistance plan focusing on strengthening the technical capacities of anti-drug authorities, establishing a legal framework in line with United Nations conventions, and improving local drug treatment and rehabilitation capacities.

Latin America and the Caribbean

30. In 1994, \$36 million was allocated to Latin America and the Caribbean. UNDCP interventions were concentrated in: alternative development (48 per cent of the total allocation); demand reduction activities - in many cases integrating drug abuse situation analyses, community development, preventive education and treatment and rehabilitation (28 per cent); and strengthening of the institutional framework for drug control and human resources development (24 per cent).

31. With regard to institution-building, major achievements are: some 10,000 better-trained and -equipped drug control police and customs officials, contributing to record seizures and improved national law enforcement coordination in Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador and Jamaica; more effective government control of companies trading in essential chemicals and precursors required to refine cocaine, with notable results on the border between Bolivia and Chile and in Colombia, where major violating companies were closed; better-equipped legal systems and forensic laboratories for the prosecution of drug offences in Bolivia, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago and the eastern Caribbean, including training for some 500 prosecutors, magistrates, investigators and forensic experts; training for national drug control commissions in planning, data collection and analysis in the Bahamas, Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Peru, Trinidad and Tobago and Uruguay; improved international drug control telecommunications systems in 28 countries and territories in the Caribbean; and higher awareness of the need to prevent drug-related money-laundering, leading to the draft legislation currently being considered by legislatures in Chile, Costa Rica, Jamaica, Panama and Suriname.

32. National programmes for preventive education using school curricula were implemented to the benefit of schoolchildren in Bolivia, Bahamas, Belize, Colombia, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and the territories of Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Netherlands Antilles and Turks and Caicos Islands. Simultaneously, over 1,000 teachers were trained to deliver the drug abuse prevention components of the curriculum. Work for youth in out-of-school settings was also carried out, usually with non-governmental organizations. Its aim was to train community leaders and educators of street children in the early detection of drug abuse and attendant problems, counselling, social integration and related matters. Directly or indirectly, some 100,000 street children at risk or children defined as being in especially difficult circumstances were reached in 1994 in Bahamas, Belize, Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua and Venezuela, through counselling, vocational training and a wide range of services to strengthen their immunity to the lure of drug abuse.

33. Mass media campaigns targeting specific groups at risk of drug abuse were implemented in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic and Jamaica. Virtually all prevention programmes for youth promote education and vocational training, and advocate sports activities and healthy lifestyles as alternatives to drug abuse. Programmes in the Bahamas and Brazil incorporate preventive education, treatment and rehabilitation services specifically for women and intravenous drug abusers. In Chile, Jamaica and Mexico, UNDCP and the International Labour Organisation have provided training to hundreds of company supervisors in over 60 firms on drug abuse prevention in the workplace. In the fields of treatment and rehabilitation, UNDCP cooperates with the health authorities of the Bahamas, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. Some 300 health professionals received training. While it is too early to assess the impact of UNDCP demand reduction activities during 1994, a 1993 epidemiological survey in Colombia reported that drug abuse in major cities of that country had not increased during the period 1989-1992, suggesting that national demand reduction strategies have been effective.

34. Improved coordination with Governments, donors and other agencies enabled UNDCP in 1994 to attach itself to wider national programmes in the health and education sector, thus significantly increasing the relevance and cost-effectiveness of UNDCP demand reduction interventions. In August, the Government of Brazil and UNDCP signed a \$9.1 million multi-agency drug abuse prevention project targeting specifically high-risk groups such as intravenous drug abusers, on the basis of a \$2.3 million UNDCP contribution. Also in Brazil, a drug abuse prevention programme in the workplace, currently under elaboration with the Employers' Social Welfare Association of Rio Grande do Sul, will raise a private sector cash contribution of \$1.3 million on the basis of a \$340,000 UNDCP contribution. In Bolivia, UNDCP is assisting in the implementation of a \$179.8 million education improvement programme aimed at carrying out the recently adopted education reform law. The UNDCP contribution consists of complementing the education programme with a project exclusively aimed at developing and testing material for the curriculum on drug abuse, and evaluating the impact of current mass media campaigns in support of preventive education.

35. With regard to alternative development, UNDCP programmes provided some 30,000 peasant farmers, previously involved primarily in illicit coca cultivation, with alternative sources of income through a comprehensive agro-industrial development package, including production and marketing of licit crops, related extension services, basic rural sanitation and social communication. In 1994, the programmes in the three Andean countries reduced 5,000 hectares of illicit coca bush cultivation. Equally important, alternative development programmes financed by UNDCP and other donors account for some 10,000 hectares of new land devoted to licit products, many for export markets, thus reinforcing the economic viability of selected alternative agro-industrial products.

36. In 1994, a process of change and reform began in the nature, scale and mechanics of UNDCP alternative development interventions in the Andean region, principally with a view to stressing the role of UNDCP as advocate, technical partner, coordinator and source of partial funding, but within the context of Government-led programmes. The UNDCP coordinating role is exemplified in Colombia, where UNDCP is involved in the elaboration of a pilot project on environmental rehabilitation of areas affected by illicit opium poppy. A similar pilot project deals with coca cultivation. The programmes are Government-led, and enable UNDCP to pursue its comparative advantage in the drug control component. In 1994, similar strategies were pursued in Bolivia and Peru, where UNDCP assisted the authorities with the development of Government-led multi-agency projects, as well as with the organization of round tables to promote alternative development investment from international financial institutions, bilateral donors and relevant United Nations agencies and regional bodies.

B. Drug control master plans

37. The idea of promoting national drug control plans figures prominently in the Comprehensive Multidisciplinary Outline of Future Activities in Drug Abuse Control¹ adopted by the International Conference on Drug Abuse and Illicit Trafficking, held at Vienna from 17 to 26 June 1987. The plans were seen as a fundamental instrument for activating the national strategy called for in the Global Programme of Action adopted on 23 February 1990 at the seventeenth special session of the General Assembly.² A number of Governments have since adopted and implemented drug control plans.

38. The provision of advice and assistance to Governments in the design of master plans continues to be a priority for UNDCP. A set of guidelines and a model format were prepared during 1994 and served as useful tools in supporting the efforts of Governments. One staff member was assigned full time to work on master plans to better respond to the growing number of requests from Governments for assistance in their formulation.

39. In the case of countries in need of external assistance in drug control, the master plan can provide a useful frame of reference for the design and assessment of technical cooperation projects. The master plan, however, is not in itself a description of technical cooperation projects, but rather one of government policy, strategy and planned activities. In its activities in support of master plans, UNDCP makes every effort to ensure that they retain their nature as government plans, which may or may not incorporate technical cooperation.

40. The need for strategic national planning is stressed as a matter of course in UNDCP contacts with all Governments. Master plans prepared with UNDCP assistance were adopted by the Governments of Colombia, Lao People's Democratic Republic and Peru in 1994, joining those already approved in Bangladesh, Bolivia, Ecuador, Nepal and Sri Lanka.

41. Advice or assistance is also being provided to the Governments of Guatemala, Pakistan and United Arab Emirates, among others, on the design of national strategies and plans. In August 1994, a national workshop of an interministerial steering committee was held in Pakistan, at which officials discussed the operational modalities for the preparation of a drug control master plan.

42. A workshop held in Barbados in March 1994 advanced the preparation of national plans in the countries of the Caribbean, and by October 1994 drafts had been prepared in 15 States or territories of the region. A project to support the process was managed through the UNDCP Regional Office in Barbados.

43. Requests for assistance in master plan formulation were received from a number of other countries, including Costa Rica, Namibia and Paraguay. The need for master plans is also receiving attention in the UNDCP dialogue with several Governments in the Commonwealth of Independent States. In several cases, the question of national planning is closely tied to that of coordination; in fact, the establishment of a national coordinating body for drug control matters is often a prerequisite for the successful design and approval of a comprehensive national plan.

44. The term master plan is by no means an obligatory designation for such plans, and Governments in some cases refer to them as national drug control plans, action plans for drug abuse control or any of a wide range of titles. A number of Governments have recently prepared national drug control plans on their own, and have shared them with UNDCP, in some cases inviting comments from the UNDCP perspective. The recent efforts of Egypt, Hungary, Kyrgyzstan and Uruguay are noteworthy in that respect, as is the action plan prepared by the European Community.

45. Other Governments, including Algeria, Argentina, Australia, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Malaysia, Russian Federation, South Africa, Spain, Thailand, Ukraine and United States of America, have indicated, either in the course of deliberations of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs or in other forums, that they have national plans. UNDCP is making an effort to identify all national drug control plans and to obtain copies of them. Governments are encouraged to assist in that initiative.

46. A proposal for bringing national drug control master plans to the attention of the Commission has been presented for consideration by the Commission (E/CN.7/1995/16).

II. REGIONAL ACTIVITIES

A. Regional or subregional arrangements

1. Africa

47. In 1994, UNDCP and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) signed a memorandum of understanding providing for their cooperation in Africa. The arrangement foresees, *inter alia*, information exchange and sharing of expertise, joint activities and the provision of drug control reference material to OAU. In June 1993, the OAU Summit of Heads of State adopted a resolution calling for the elaboration of an action plan for drug control at the continental level. In 1994, UNDCP assisted in the follow-up by supporting OAU in carrying out a survey on drug abuse among youth. The survey was presented at the OAU Regional Conference on Youth, held at Tunis in January 1995.

48. The final communiqué of the above-mentioned legal workshop held at Pretoria in November 1994 (see para. 11) indicated the formation of an informal ministerial group in southern Africa to follow developments in countries that participated in the meeting and to monitor the implementation of the decisions taken.

(a) Cooperation with regional organizations

49. While subregional approaches form the basis for the UNDCP programme of cooperation in the African context, complications ultimately traceable to the structural weakness of regional institutions limit the ability of UNDCP to develop sustained cooperation programmes. Nevertheless encouraging progress is under way. UNDCP has established working-level contact with the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) and with ECOWAS. The same approach is to be followed with respect to the Southern African Development Cooperation Council and the Arab Maghreb Union. In central Africa, UNDCP assisted in the establishment of a coordinating drug unit within the ECCAS secretariat, and has actively participated in the elaboration of a subregional programme for drug control which houses the Subregional Technical Committee, a policy-making and coordinating organ for drug matters within ECCAS. Implementation of the programme is still affected by the overall troubled political situation in the area, as well as the severe economic and financial difficulties of many States in the subregion. In West Africa the subregional process has been launched through a specific project which will strengthen the capacity of ECOWAS to deal with drug control in the subregion.

(b) Regional outlook

50. By the year 2000 it is likely that the drug-related situation for a large number of African countries will have deteriorated as a result of the combination of high rates of population growth, political instability and negative fiscal and monetary trends. Also anticipated is a decreasing reduction of government expenditures allocated for the maintenance and development of existing drug control structures. That can only result in the weakening of national drug control capabilities opening a window of opportunity for international drug traffickers. Likewise, although no definite relationship has been established between poverty and the propensity to abuse drugs, UNDCP expects the gradual deterioration of African social structures to lead to an increase of drug abuse, including substances such as khat and volatile solvents.

51. In that context, UNDCP will focus on the development of national institutions as a basis for strengthening regional cooperation. Interventions will be based on the development of reliable data collection systems and specific surveys designed to promote an adequate understanding of the situation. In carrying out such activities, addressing both supply and demand reduction in a balanced way, UNDCP

will increase partnerships with international and regional organizations, as well as with non-governmental organizations in the region.

2. Asia and the Pacific

52. Sociopolitical developments in the region have provided UNDCP with an opportunity to promote cooperation in joint drug control programmes with the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan. In May 1994, a memorandum of understanding was formally signed by the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan and UNDCP, and immediately followed by the signature of a three-year joint project agreement to strengthen surveillance capacities of law enforcement agencies in the border areas of those two countries. The two Governments committed \$27 million to the project, with UNDCP input of \$3.6 million.

53. In South Asia, a noteworthy development in addressing trafficking in precursors and heroin across the border between India and Pakistan was a technical consultation held at Vienna in July 1994 under UNDCP auspices. The participants comprised the drug coordination agencies of both countries and an interested donor. The result was an action plan, which included, *inter alia*, agreement by the Governments concerned to meet at regular intervals at policy and operational levels to jointly review and agree on common approaches to drug-related problems affecting their common borders, such as control over the movement of precursor chemicals, heroin and other substances of abuse, and to establish systems for the regular and systematic exchange of operational information. The first meeting took place in India in September 1994. The parties identified and initiated a number of concrete measures to improve the bilateral arrangements targeted at drug trafficking between India and Pakistan. An operational-level meeting was then held in December, at Islamabad, the results of which were not yet available for inclusion in the present report. UNDCP has initiated technical support to the bilateral agreement between India and Myanmar in order to strengthen communication systems and information exchange.

54. With regard to the inter-country agreements between China and between Myanmar and Thailand, the first meeting of operational-level law enforcement officers took place at Chiang Rai and Ruili/Muse in March and September 1994, respectively, to initiate contacts aimed at improved communications and information exchange. Following the signing of a memorandum of understanding, a meeting of senior officials of China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Thailand, with the assistance of UNDCP, was held in June and July 1994 at Vientiane. It identified new areas of collaboration in addition to the ongoing subregional projects in law enforcement, alternative development and demand reduction, as reflected in a draft action plan for future cooperation. The action plan provides for joint activities in identification and measurement of opium poppy cultivation, joint law enforcement training, precursor control, licit drug control, demand reduction with the focus on preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS, data collection and information sharing on drug abuse, joint preventive action on behalf of minority populations and organization of seminars and workshops. Participating countries have invited Cambodia and Viet Nam to join the subregional group, and Cambodia has already decided to do so.

(a) Cooperation with regional organizations

55. A memorandum of understanding between the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and UNDCP is expected to be approved at the next meeting of the SAARC technical committee. The memorandum of understanding provides a framework for UNDCP support of SAARC drug control activities in the region. In September 1994 UNDCP supported the development of legislation on money-laundering, in preparation for a workshop on money-laundering held under SAARC auspices.

56. UNDCP continues to collaborate with the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) in the area of demand reduction, focusing on community involvement in selected countries in Asia through the establishment of local action teams and training in such matters as problem identification, organization of activities and evaluation.

57. UNDCP provided expertise to a legal workshop jointly conducted by UNDCP and the Colombo Plan Bureau to assist countries in their compliance with the 1988 Convention. UNDCP actively participated in and contributed to the fourth review of the drug abuse programme of the Colombo Plan Bureau. UNDCP will coordinate its programme with the three-year action plan being developed by the Association of South-East Asian Nations. In response to an initiative by the Economic Cooperation Organization, UNDCP has drafted a memorandum of understanding to provide the framework for cooperation in areas such as information exchange, demand reduction and law enforcement.

(b) Regional outlook

58. Subregional cooperation has entered an operational phase between the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan. In 1994, the basis for operational initiatives between Pakistan and India was also established. It is a trend that UNDCP expects to continue. The fact that four of the nine countries in the subregion now have a master plan attests to the emerging political will in the region to tackle illicit drug problems.

59. It is widely recognized that China is undergoing a historic economic transformation. However, economic growth has not yet materially benefited the opium farmers of the region, nor is it likely to do so in the near future. As a result, income from illicit cultivation will probably remain their source of livelihood. Improved communication and transport networks are connecting remote areas to urban centres, but those developments may also facilitate illegal trafficking of drugs as the emergence of new routes is facilitated. The drug abuse situation is expected to show limited improvement in the period up to the year 2000, despite strengthened national and international efforts. The UNDCP response to the situation will therefore be to continue to foster subregional cooperation, promote more interdisciplinary intervention, and seek a comprehensive response to supply and demand reduction, in order at least to contain the drug abuse situation in South-East Asia. Cross-border cooperation efforts will increasingly become a focus of UNDCP support.

3. Europe and the Middle East

60. Bilateral and multilateral initiatives have been launched in support of the Governments in central and eastern Europe. A number of actions are being developed and need to be coordinated in order to avoid overlapping of activities and inefficiencies. UNDCP advocates cooperation among donors and recipient countries.

61. UNDCP activities in eastern Europe, in States of the Commonwealth of Independent States and in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania reflect the fact that institution-building must begin with a comprehensive assessment of local needs and capabilities. In 1993, UNDCP led an assessment of law enforcement needs of the countries concerned. On the basis of that inventory of needs and ongoing assistance programmes, appropriate activities have since been designed, financed and implemented. Later that year, the coordination mechanism was expanded into the field of demand reduction. UNDCP organized a coordination meeting on demand reduction at Vienna in November 1993. Member States, United Nations agencies and relevant international organizations attended the meeting and adopted a draft plan of action for demand reduction activities in the countries of central and eastern Europe. On the basis of that meeting and the needs identified by the recipient countries, regional activities in demand reduction were developed in the following three areas: formulation of a regional programme to assess

the demand reduction situation in the region; establishment of a network of social scientists and field organizations (non-governmental organizations); and establishment of national frameworks for the improvement of drug data collection. In the field of licit control, UNDCP was promoting the capacity of countries of central and eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States in monitoring the flow of licit drugs through a series of workshops for drug control administrators.

62. During 1994, the UNDCP coordination mechanism for eastern European countries, the Baltic States and the Commonwealth of Independent States focused on programming and project formulation in the countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States. Joint analysis and evaluation demonstrated the need to provide technical assistance in institution-building, development of enforcement concepts and improvement of legal systems, before offering specialized training programmes or providing equipment. Collection and analysis of information by UNDCP made it possible to update strategic country profiles for all 28 target countries of the region. Those documents facilitated a more efficient delivery of assistance, as the information contained therein enabled donors to refine ongoing and planned bilateral assistance activities. During two task force meetings held in June and December of 1994, donors were informed in detail about the implementation and further development of UNDCP technical assistance programmes for the Baltic States, central Asian and Transcaucasian countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States, Belarus, Ukraine and selected central European countries.

63. In the Middle East, UNDCP relaunched talks with Egypt, Jordan, Israel and Palestine, with a view to organizing a subregional drug control technical meeting to identify means of cooperation aimed at enhancing operational capacities for drug control in the subregion.

(a) Cooperation with regional organizations

64. In order to develop regional programmes in central and eastern European countries, UNDCP expanded its close cooperation with the Pompidou Group of the Council of Europe. It resulted in practical collaboration through the extension of a multi-city programme to selected central and eastern European countries. At the same time, two regional demand reduction programmes to be carried out in cooperation with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and WHO were formulated. In the law enforcement sector, UNDCP continued its cooperation with the World Customs Organization (WCO) (formerly the Customs Cooperation Council), in establishing a regional intelligence information network in 21 European countries. During the period, UNDCP continued to implement the project for the establishment of a Balkan route laboratory in the region.

65. UNDCP led talks with the Council of Arab Ministers of the Interior to examine means of strengthening cooperation in the drug control field. UNDCP is also cooperating with the secretariat of the Arab League for the preparation of a regional drug control strategy.

(b) Regional outlook

66. The visit of the Executive Director to central Asia in May 1994 confirmed the existence of a political will to deal with the drug problem, and prepared the way for a working agreement between the central Asian States of the Commonwealth of Independent States under UNDCP auspices. Application of the master-plan approach is considered crucial for the subregion, where the rapidly deteriorating drug situation has already caused serious health-related, socio-economic and political problems. Formulation of subregional cooperation programmes is being pursued with the support of the UNDCP Regional Office for central Asian States of the Commonwealth of Independent States.

67. One likely consequence of the peace process in the Middle East will be an increased and diversified series of economic and commercial activities which may be exploited by drug-traffickers and others

involved in the illicit drug trade. At the same time, progress in the Middle East peace talks will encourage the expansion of subregional drug control activities. Newly acquired autonomy in the occupied territories calls for the establishment of institutions designed to provide an appropriate drug control institutional framework.

4. Latin America and the Caribbean

68. A memorandum of understanding on subregional drug control cooperation was signed in April 1994 by Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Peru and UNDCP. In that context, the following programmes were developed for subregional implementation: treatment and rehabilitation (Argentina); preventive education through mass media and marketing of products from alternative development programmes (Bolivia); joint training for police, customs and epidemiologists (Chile); and expertise in debt swaps for funding of drug control activities (Peru). Programmes will be funded primarily by signatories of the memorandum of understanding, with potential for technical assistance or partial funding from UNDCP, the Inter-American Commission on Drug Abuse Control (CICAD) of the Organization of American States (OAS), the WHO/Pan-American Health Organization Programme on Substance Abuse, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, WCO and selected non-governmental organizations. The first programmes are due to start in early 1995, and will in some cases complement existing bilateral programmes linking the countries parties to the memorandum of understanding.

(a) Cooperation with regional organizations

69. In 1994, UNDCP and CICAD conducted three training programmes in the fields of money-laundering and precursor control, directly benefiting about 200 prosecutors, judges and police and customs officials. Several follow-up advisory missions were carried out to assist Governments in the implementation of model legislation in both fields. UNDCP and CICAD also developed for implementation in early 1995 two subregional programmes, one for harmonization of drug control legislation in central American countries, the other for the establishment of a certificate programme on addictions at the University of the West Indies.

(b) Regional outlook

70. Current trends suggest that substance abuse will increase significantly in the following countries: Brazil, Central America, Jamaica, Mexico, Trinidad and Tobago and Venezuela. Other countries and territories will experience moderate growth rates. Abuse by women will increase faster than the average. In the light of strong world demand for cocaine and its derivatives for years to come, prices for Andean coca leaf and base will remain lucrative propositions for large segments of peasant farmers in Bolivia, Colombia and Peru. Peru will remain the principal producer of coca, followed by Colombia and Bolivia. Colombian heroin production will experience a significant increase from its current level, drawing raw material from opium poppy fields in Colombia and Peru.

71. In many cases, drug control competes with what are perceived to be more pressing national priorities. The problem is aggravated in most countries by scant awareness of the precise costs inflicted on society by illicit drugs in terms of socio-economic development, health, governance and national security. In order to reverse or at least mitigate the problems arising from the anticipated trends, UNDCP operational activities in the region will aim at: a better understanding of the social and economic impact of the illicit drug industry; strengthening of institutional frameworks for national and regional drug control; and advocating strategies which specifically address the drug dimension in rural development, health and education. The ability of UNDCP to expand and reorient its cooperation efforts

in Latin America will, inter alia, depend on its ability to mobilize resources for large investment in alternative development.

B. Meetings of subsidiary bodies of the Commission

72. Since the thirty-seventh session of the Commission, the following meetings of Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies (HONLEA) were held in 1994: Seventh Meeting of HONLEA, Africa; Nineteenth Meeting of HONLEA, Asia and the Pacific; and Sixth Meeting of HONLEA, Latin America and the Caribbean. The Third Meeting of HONLEA, Europe, is scheduled to be held at Vienna from 30 January to 3 February 1995. Such meetings review the current situation and trends in illicit drug traffic in the respective regions and adopt measures to counter illicit traffic trends at the regional level. The meetings also review steps taken by Governments to implement recommendations adopted at previous meetings.

73. The Sixth Meeting of HONLEA, Latin America and the Caribbean, held at Santo Domingo from 30 May to 3 June 1994, resulted in the following: recommendations related to the improvement of cross-border controls, particularly with regard to substances used for the illicit manufacture of drugs; the formulation of measures to enhance regional drug law enforcement cooperation to counter the activities of major trafficking groups in the region; and recommendations to address problems in combating illicit drug traffic and associated activities in the Caribbean.

74. The Seventh Meeting of HONLEA, Africa, held at Addis Ababa from 10 to 14 October 1994, and the Nineteenth Meeting of HONLEA, Asia and the Pacific, which met at Wellington from 14 to 18 November 1994, adopted the following: measures targeting international criminal drug-trafficking organizations and their links with terrorist groups and other armed criminal groups; recommendations to counter money-laundering by drug traffickers; and measures to promote the more effective use of the drug law enforcement technique of controlled delivery, and to facilitate inter-agency drug law enforcement cooperation at the national level.

75. In compliance with Commission resolution 3 (XXXVII) of 21 April 1994, the HONLEA meetings have contributed to the report on issues related to drug law enforcement as identified in paragraph 10 (d, f, g and h) of General Assembly resolution 48/12 of 28 October 1993. Those issues included: the examination of the question of penalties for offences related to drug trafficking, including money-laundering and the traffic in arms; strengthening international cooperation to eradicate the growing links between terrorist groups and international criminal drug organizations; and the implementation of provisions of the 1988 Convention, particularly those related to drug trafficking by sea and precursors.

III. GLOBAL ACTIVITIES

A. Treaty adherence

1. Legal assistance

76. From 1 January to 31 October 1994, six States (Ethiopia, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Sierra Leone and Sudan) became parties to the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961,³ as amended by the 1972 Protocol,⁴ five States (Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Myanmar, Saint Kitts and Nevis and Sierra Leone) became parties to the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971,⁵ and nine States (Colombia, Ethiopia, Finland, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Panama, Poland, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Sierra Leone) became parties to the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988.⁶

77. During the same period, UNDCP published 46 national laws promulgated by 24 Governments to give effect to the international drug control treaties. The laws published include comprehensive drug control laws concerning the regulation of licit production, distribution and movement of drugs and the definition of offences, sanctions and investigation powers, as well as texts of more specific scope, for instance on the prevention of drug abuse and the treatment and rehabilitation of abusers, or on the setting-up of national coordination mechanisms. Numerous texts update national legislation to give effect to the 1988 Convention, covering such topics as precursor control, mutual legal assistance, money-laundering and confiscation of proceeds.

78. In order to increase the usefulness to States of the publication of national laws, and in addition to the preparation of a yearly index of laws, UNDCP submitted to the Commission in 1994 an overview of legislative trends on selected key topics, in particular controlled delivery and control of proceeds from drug trafficking.

79. Pursuant to Commission resolution 9 (XXXVII) of 21 April 1994, a working group on maritime cooperation was established, with the mandate to develop a comprehensive set of principles and specific recommendations to enhance the implementation of article 17 of the 1988 Convention on illicit traffic at sea. The working group met in September 1994. Its recommendations are contained in the report of that meeting (E/CN.7/1995/13).

80. From 1 January to 1 September 1994, UNDCP carried out a number of specific activities in the field of treaty implementation, including the communication of seven notifications under the provisions of the international drug control treaties. One in particular related to the proposal of the Government of the United States to put an additional psychotropic substance under international control. Another notification concerned the withdrawal by a Government of the prohibition to import into its country a substance under article 13 of the 1971 Convention. The first notification pursuant to article 12 of the 1988 Convention concerning the request of a Government for prior notification of the export of a substance in Table I (ephedrine) was communicated.

81. Fifty-one annual reports of Governments on the working of the international drug control treaties were analysed, and the data was used in preparing country profiles and updated editions of the following two annual publications: Competent National Authorities under the International Drug Control Treaties (ST/NAR.3/1994/1); and Manufacture of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances under International Control (ST/NAR.4/1994/1).

82. Comprehensive legal advisory assistance was provided to the following 31 States in the form of legal review, analysis and advisory reports on domestic drug control laws and arrangements to help States revise their laws in line with the international drug control conventions: Albania, Bolivia, Brazil, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Colombia, Congo, Croatia, Czech Republic, Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Maldives, Mauritius, Moldavia, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Ukraine, United Republic of Tanzania, Uzbekistan, Viet Nam and Zambia).

83. In addition, the legal workshop programme has been significantly expanded. The workshops are used both to help train legislative drafting personnel and those involved in the implementation of the new laws, as well as to identify and help resolve problems of treaty implementation and legislative implementation. Subregional workshops were held for the Baltic States and States of South-East Asia, the Commonwealth of Independent States, the Caribbean, southern and eastern Africa and the Indian Ocean.

2. Support to the International Narcotics Control Board

84. In 1994, UNDCP continued to provide support and services to the International Narcotics Control Board (INCB). The INCB secretariat, working in close cooperation with other parts of UNDCP, assisted INCB in monitoring the functioning of the international drug control system, in close cooperation with Governments.

85. Under working arrangements adopted in 1991, UNDCP provided detailed information for consideration by INCB when preparing its 1994 report. Since 1994, UNDCP field offices have been assisting INCB in organizing press conferences and by providing necessary media contacts for the presentation of its annual report to the general public. It assisted in the publishing of the three annual technical publications of INCB on narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and substances frequently used in the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances. UNDCP also provided support to INCB in preparing an additional supplement to its main annual report on the effectiveness of the international drug control treaties.

86. The Economic and Social Council, in its resolution 1994/3 of 20 July 1994, on development of information systems on drugs and their abuse, requested the Executive Director to report on the implementation of that resolution. In 1994, further efforts were made by UNDCP to enhance the computer technology available to the INCB secretariat, with a view to enabling electronic exchange of treaty-mandated information among Governments, and more efficient worldwide monitoring by the Board of the licit movements of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances. Furthermore, the development of electronic communication systems with WCO, the International Criminal Police Organization (ICPO/Interpol), the Commission of the European Communities, CICAD and the Government of the United States is facilitating the detection of suspicious movements of precursors and essential chemicals. A database on precursors has been further developed within the INCB secretariat to enable INCB to fulfil its functions under article 12 of the 1988 Convention. UNDCP has initiated, upon request from the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, regional bodies and Governments, the establishment of a unique substance code that can be used for the electronic transmission of data on licit production, manufacture and trade, including imports and exports of controlled substances. A personal-computer-based data system that can assist national authorities with the control of all licit activities is also being developed, and should be available in the third quarter of 1995. With a view to enabling national authorities to have direct access to its information system, to improving the response time for inquiries and to facilitating electronic information exchange, UNDCP installed a new system with a high level of security.

3. Control over licit drug manufacture and distribution

87. UNDCP also organized and funded two INCB regional training seminars for drug control administrators, one in Gabon in July 1994 and one in Turkey in October 1994. The seminar in Gabon provided training to 20 drug control administrators of countries of the region (Angola, Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Gabon, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Uganda, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles, Sudan, Zaire, Zambia and Zimbabwe) on the requirements of the international drug control conventions and on how to comply with them at the national level. The seminar adopted a final report identifying the major obstacles to the adequate functioning of the drug control systems and recommending ways to improve controls. In Turkey, drug control administrators from the Near and Middle East and central Asia (Bahrain, Iraq, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tajikistan, Turkey and Uzbekistan) attended a similar training programme. UNDCP also funded a joint INCB/CICAD seminar for Central America and the Caribbean, held in the Dominican Republic from 29 March to 3 April 1994. UNDCP will continue to assist INCB in supporting such events in 1995. Besides the training provided during each of them, they

afford a unique opportunity for regulatory authorities of the respective regions to exchange experience, enhance cooperation and harmonize approaches.

4. Precursors and essential chemicals

88. Implementation of the South-East Asia project on precursor control which started in 1993 in Thailand is proceeding well. As part of the project, two workshops have already been held, participants are collaborating in building working mechanisms and procedures between the countries of South-East Asia, and with chemical-exporting countries outside the region, to identify suspicious transactions and prevent the diversion of precursors.

89. In parallel with the above-mentioned project, UNDCP has also begun a similar project for the development and improvement of control of precursors and essential chemicals in South Asia and South-West Asia, which commenced January 1995, and is scheduled to end in 1996. The project is a response to the potential threat of diversion of such substances in South Asia and South-West Asia and the impact of their diversion on existing problems related to the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, specifically heroin, methamphetamine and methaqualone, in the region and elsewhere. Most countries in the region participate (Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan are also included, since those countries have well-developed chemical manufacturing industries and are a potential source of precursors that may be diverted). The goals of the project include a review of the current status of control measures in all countries, identification of the problems of diversion from international trade and from manufacture and domestic distribution, and elaboration of proposals for establishing working mechanisms and procedures to prevent diversion.

B. Interorganizational cooperation

90. UNDCP efforts to foster inter-agency coordination and cooperation were given new impetus by the adoption - at the end of 1993 - of two General Assembly resolutions on international drug control activities and the role of UNDCP therein.

91. In resolution 48/12, the Assembly, inter alia, reaffirmed the need for the contribution of United Nations programmes and agencies to the implementation of the Global Programme of Action to be coordinated and consistent with the United Nations System-Wide Action Plan on Drug Abuse Control (SWAP). On their side, States represented in the governing bodies of the programmes and agencies concerned should ensure that the agendas of those bodies consistently reflect and accord adequate priority to drug control activities.

92. General Assembly resolution 48/112 of 20 December 1993 contains a specific section on action by agencies of the United Nations system in the implementation of SWAP. In that chapter, the Assembly specifically referred to the international financial institutions, UNICEF and the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch as three components of the system warranting closer interaction and cooperation with UNDCP.

93. The Council, at its coordination segment in July 1994, debated the issue of system-wide coordination in drug control activities and adopted a set of agreed conclusions. In preparation for the Council debate, UNDCP had prepared and submitted a report on the status of international cooperation in drug abuse control within the United Nations system (see E/1994/58).

94. The outcome of the deliberations of the Council provided further guidance to UNDCP in its endeavours. In particular, the Council concurred with the views of UNDCP regarding the need for the organizations of the United Nations system to agree on shared goals and objectives, which would

provide the required strategic orientation to SWAP, and would then be pursued by ways and means of specific programmes and projects at the operational level. The Council also reaffirmed the need for international financial institutions to consider the drug phenomenon in their cooperation with the other organizations of the United Nations system, especially UNDCP, in defining joint action (see E/1994/L.33).

95. In the context of more attention being paid to field-level coordination, the role of Resident Coordinators and UNDP/UNDCP Resident Representatives was emphasized by the Council. In consultation with interested Governments, Resident Representatives have been requested to add anti-drug efforts to their main areas of responsibility and seek to include, as appropriate, drug abuse control issues in indicative planning figures for country programmes.

96. In addition, the Council recommended that agencies and organizations of the United Nations system should incorporate, as appropriate, all relevant aspects of drug control activities into their own substantive programmes. In particular, international financial institutions were requested to pay greater attention to the macroeconomic impact of drug production, trafficking and abuse.

97. The deliberations of the Council were brought to the attention of executive heads of the United Nations agencies and programmes. They were also discussed during the annual session of the Subcommittee on Drug Control of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC), which met at Vienna from 5 to 7 September 1994. Moreover, they will be the focus of debate on a specific item in the agenda of the first regular session of ACC in 1995, which is scheduled for the end of February.

98. During 1994, UNDCP began its participation in the Joint Consultative Group on Policy, to which it has been admitted as an observer. It is hoped that, by its active involvement in that body, UNDCP will be able to foster a better understanding of drug control issues and promote greater attention to them in the policies of United Nations entities that fund development activities.

99. As regards formal cooperation agreements with other organizations and programmes of the United Nations system, three memoranda of understanding were signed with ILO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO). Moreover, similar memoranda are in an advanced state of negotiation with IFAD and WHO. Concerning intergovernmental organizations outside the United Nations, a memorandum of understanding was signed with OAU, while an agreement is being finalized with SAARC.

100. Operational activities have continued to provide evidence of active UNDCP cooperation with other United Nations partners in the execution of specific programmes and projects. Significant new examples of cooperation in project implementation include: a demand reduction project in Zimbabwe with ILO aimed at strengthening resident capabilities of prevention and treatment in drug and alcohol problems; a major programme with ILO for the development of community drug rehabilitation and prevention schemes in India; in Pakistan, the second phase of the Dir District Development Project, which is an alternative development programme comprising a wide spectrum of socio-economic activities executed by the UNDP Office for Project Services (UNDP/OPS), a project functionally linked to a programme supported by IFAD in the same region, which was approved concomitantly for a total value of \$10 million; in Lebanon, the first phase of the Baalbeck-Hermel integrated rural development programme, which is also being implemented by UNDP/OPS. Furthermore, FAO is executing a project in Bolivia to improve the management of forest resources threatened by coca cultivation. Again in Bolivia, UNIDO has been assigned responsibility for the rehabilitation of the Milka dairy plant in the Chapare region. In Jamaica, a project has been approved for execution by ILO in the prevention and reduction of drug and alcohol problems in the workplace. Cooperation with UNICEF is being explored

in selected countries in areas of special concern, such as out-of-school youths, family and community. Another recent development that deserves mention, in view of its pilot nature and the potential it holds for further cooperation, is the approval and implementation of phase one of a tripartite project with WHO and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to curb drug abuse and to detoxify addicts among Vietnamese refugees temporarily in Hong Kong, in order to increase their chances of being accepted for resettlement opportunities offered by receiving countries or to facilitate their repatriation. If fully successful, the project will be replicated on a larger scale.

101. In addition to country and subregional activities, other projects of a global nature were approved and funded by UNDCP in the course of 1994 for implementation by agencies and organizations of the United Nations system. In that context, for instance, FAO is conducting an evaluation of commercial remotely sensed data for the assessment of illicit crops.

102. As regards partnerships with intergovernmental organizations outside the United Nations system, UNDCP is funding a project of assistance for the suppression of illicit traffic in Cuba, which is being executed by WCO. At a global level, OAS has been organizing an INCB training seminar for drug control administrators from Central America and the Caribbean.

C. Demand reduction

103. For the effective planning and design of comprehensive strategies in demand reduction, it is important to have quantitative and qualitative information on the extent of drug abuse and social and cultural characteristics of abusers. In that connection, UNDCP has conducted a series of rapid assessments of the drug abuse situation in Cameroon, Kenya and Lebanon and limited assessments in India, Myanmar and Viet Nam. More rapid assessments are in the pipeline for Africa (Ethiopia), Europe (Czech Republic) and Latin America (Central America and Ecuador).

104. Regarding the analysis of global trends based upon the International Drug Abuse Assessment System and replies submitted by Governments to the annual reports questionnaire, a report for the Commission as well as a number of drug abuse country profiles have been prepared. The questionnaire is being revised to make reporting easier for the Governments concerned.

105. Demand reduction expert forums for the Latin American region were held at São Paulo, Brazil, from 10 to 13 May 1994, in which 15 countries participated, and, for the Caribbean region, at Nassau, Bahamas, from 4 to 7 October 1994, with 29 countries and territories participating. The purpose of the expert forums is to provide government officials concerned with demand reduction with the capacity for better planning, coordination and implementation of drug abuse prevention, treatment and rehabilitation programmes. That is achieved through transfer of knowledge, assessment of successful programmes, data collection and analysis, and programme development at national and subregional levels. In the process, UNDCP also collects relevant information on regional capacities and needs in the demand reduction area, for more effective coordination and programming of assistance at the national and international level.

106. UNDCP has been called upon to respond to the growing HIV epidemic among substance-dependent people, especially injecting drug abusers. Special efforts have been made in formulating prevention programmes especially in Asia and Latin America. The programme for the prevention of HIV/AIDS infection in Brazil was launched. In Viet Nam, where up to 85 per cent of HIV cases have drug abuse as the prime risk factor, UNDCP is supporting the Government in the preparation of a drug control master plan. A regional project has been launched with ESCAP to develop national programmes for HIV/AIDS prevention in six countries of the region. Similarly, another multisectoral subregional

project involving China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Thailand is being implemented.

107. Recognizing the multidisciplinary nature of drug demand reduction, and in order to utilize the expertise of the specialized agencies within the United Nations system, UNDCP has collaborated with the following United Nations agencies in demand reduction: UNHCR, UNICEF, ILO, FAO, UNESCO and WHO. The collaboration focused on: the incorporation of drug prevention components in existing education programmes (FAO and UNESCO); training in prevention of drug abuse among workers (ILO); prevention and treatment of drug abuse at all levels (WHO); and prevention of drug abuse among high risk groups and populations, for example street children and refugees (UNHCR and UNICEF).

108. The Association of Resource Managers against Drug Abuse was launched on 1 September 1994 at Vienna as a result of an ongoing ILO/WHO/UNDCP joint project entitled Model Programmes of Drug and Alcohol Abuse and Prevention among Workers and their Families. The programmes were field-tested in Egypt, Mexico, Namibia, Poland and Sri Lanka. Around 40 companies with approximately 250,000 employees are participating in the project.

109. UNDCP and WHO global collaboration in 1994 included the joint formulation of a global intervention programme on women and substance abuse, the consultation meeting on drugs and sports, the continuation of projects on mapping the treatment responses to substance abuse and on the foetal effects of substance abuse, and a study on multi-city drug injecting and HIV risk behaviour.

110. In 1994, UNDCP launched the development of a special initiative with UNHCR and WHO on the management of the problem of substance abuse among Vietnamese refugees in Hong Kong.

111. After discussions between UNDCP and UNICEF, a project was launched with regard to the use of illicit drugs by youth in the Caribbean region, and on how such use, in addition to other pertinent factors, affects their quality of life (health, education, security etc.) and puts them at risk.

112. UNDCP is collaborating with the Government of the United States and the National Institute on Drug Abuse in organizing an international drug abuse epidemiology meeting for May 1995.

113. UNDCP is preparing for the second International Private Sector Conference on Drugs in the Workplace and the Community, to be held at Porto Alegre, Brazil, in April 1995 (see paragraph 187 below). The objectives of the conference are to discuss the nature of drug abuse problems in the workplace, to review existing cooperation, to encourage the private sector to reach out through workers and their families into the communities, and to strengthen the links between private organizations and the community so as to mobilize communities against drug abuse. In Brazil, UNDCP is also cooperating with Social Services for Industry in the programme for drug abuse prevention in the workplace. The initial target is the State of Rio Grande do Sul, which has a population of 730,000 employed in the industrial sector.

114. In recognition of the valuable contribution that non-governmental organizations can have in the field of demand reduction, UNDCP supported non-governmental organizations in organizing a World Forum on the Role of NGOs in Drug Demand Reduction, held at Bangkok from 12 to 16 December 1994. Preparatory regional consultations for the World Forum were held at Bangkok and São Paulo, Brazil, in 1993, and at Cairo, Dakar, New York and Vienna in 1994. The World Forum is expected to provide a valuable opportunity to exchange ideas and experiences and to stimulate non-governmental organizations not previously engaged in drug demand reduction activities to become involved. It should also enable UNDCP to foster greater cooperation among non-governmental organizations, and between them and with UNDCP.

D. Supply reduction

115. UNDCP is developing a supply reduction strategy appropriate for the rapidly changing nature of the international illicit drug industry in the mid-1990s. The focus of the strategy is on a clear identification of the major problems currently emerging and an analysis of the best use of supply reduction instruments to deal with those problems.

116. One pillar of supply reduction activities is alternative development. UNDCP-supported alternative development projects were in operation during 1994 in Afghanistan, Bolivia, Colombia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Myanmar, Pakistan, Peru and Thailand.

117. A major workshop to examine the technical strengths and weaknesses of various approaches to alternative development was held at Lima in late 1994. Leading bilateral donor governments and technical assistance agencies participated along with UNDCP headquarters and field staff and project teams. A document integrating the findings was circulated by UNDCP subsequent to the workshop and a report reviewing policy implications was prepared by the Supply Reduction Section for distribution in early 1995. Further detailed studies of the alternative development experience of some of the countries that participated have also been circulated. With this empirical work as a base, UNDCP intends to assist policy-oriented activities closely tied to field programmes involving the participation of local, national and external groups.

118. UNDCP mandates include the monitoring of illicit drug traffic worldwide. To achieve that objective, the Supply Reduction Section is in the process of strengthening its data collection and analysis capacity. This will involve enhancing the databases, developing software for more sophisticated structural analysis and expanding the collection of information to include the full range of available sources within and outside the United Nations system. The goal is to establish a comprehensive and high-quality information and analysis capability on illicit drug trafficking in 1995. As part of that endeavour, the Supply Reduction Section is working closely with ICPO/Interpol and WCO to create a combined database ensuring greater coverage and accuracy.

119. The core effort on money-laundering is based on coordination with other organizations and groups such as the Financial Action Task Force established by the seven major industrialized countries (Group of Seven) and the President of the Commission of the European Communities, ICPO/Interpol, WCO and several others involved in enhancing the ability of Governments to trace and limit drug-related money laundering. The three-year programme is focused on raising the awareness of decision makers and training of high-level officials.

120. Remote sensing for the purpose of estimating crop production has been utilized in several instances with the close collaboration of FAO. Further examination of how this and other tools such as aerial photography and ground census methods can best be applied in specific situations to achieve optimum results is under way. These programmes aim at improving significantly the knowledge about production of narcotic crops and providing a stronger basis for the development of supply reduction strategies.

121. The activities of the Supply Reduction Section have benefited from closely related inputs by other entities. That is particularly the case regarding assistance to Governments in drafting appropriate legislation and equipping national criminal justice systems to respond to the extra demands resulting from such legislative developments.

122. In addition to its regular work, the Supply Reduction Section produced various technical papers on data collection and analysis in the past year. One such paper, entitled "UNDCP data on illicit traffic: its nature, limitations and possibilities for policy research", was prepared as a UNDCP technical

information paper. The Section also produced a paper entitled "Cocaine and heroin trafficking and prices in Europe 1983/92", and collaborated with the Research and Science Section in the preparation of a paper entitled "Present status of knowledge on the illicit drug industry". Both are available as conference room papers.

E. Research and science

123. General Assembly resolution 45/179 of 21 December 1990, by which UNDCP was created, reflected consensus among Member States that international drug control efforts have to develop on a sound knowledge base derived, *inter alia*, from research, analysis and the innovative application of new technology and methodology. It has also been stressed that UNDCP should become a centre of excellence in the field, undertaking research and analytical work, and promoting applications of results worldwide.

124. There is a widely articulated expectation that UNDCP should be proactive in the drug control field. Yet the knowledge, information and data upon which policy is built perpetually lag behind the rapid expansion of the drug problem. Many of the mechanisms for collecting the information are anachronistic. While the technological means to gather information, and the analytical means to make it policy-relevant, are clearly available, their use is varied, ad hoc and piecemeal. Unless those mechanisms for collecting the information are changed, the policy-relevant information that can be derived from them will inevitably be superseded by current practice.

125. Given the complexity of the drug issue, the multiplicity of institutions involved and the specific mandate and limited resources of UNDCP, research and analysis are conceived in a pragmatic sense, as tools to support and enhance the quality of operational activities, to help transform data and information into policy-relevant knowledge, and to integrate drug control issues into the wider context of development.

126. In order to define specific areas where research would have the most practical impact on drug control, UNDCP prepared a discussion paper for the ACC Subcommittee on Drug Control, entitled "Present status of knowledge on the illicit drug industry". The paper attempts a global assessment of the kinds of drug-related data that is collected, its limitations, and to what extent it is, or can be, transferred into policy-relevant knowledge.

127. Enriching the knowledge base for policy and operations implies accurate and timely assessments of the illicit drug industry in supplier countries. A UNDCP study on the illicit opiate industry of Pakistan is being finalized in consultation with the Government of that country. The experience of conducting that study is being used as a basis for developing outlines for similar studies in the following countries: in Asia, Afghanistan, Myanmar and Thailand; and in Latin America, Bolivia, Colombia and Peru. Consultations with the World Bank and UNDP (which is conducting similar studies in the three Andean countries) were held in September 1994 to discuss, *inter alia*, a cross-national framework for such studies.

128. In order to integrate drug control issues into the wider developmental context, UNDCP has adopted a two-pronged strategy, substantive and procedural. First, the substantive basis of the issue is investigated in the following papers to generate discussion: "Present status of knowledge on the illicit drug industry"; "Drugs and development"; and "The social and economic impact of drug abuse and control". Secondly, the procedural element of the strategy is to make better use of the many mechanisms available for inter-agency planning and coordination within the United Nations system. Thus, the first of the papers noted above was prepared for the ACC Subcommittee on Drug Control, and

the second and third papers were presented to the second preparatory committee for the World Summit for Social Development, to be held at Copenhagen in March 1995.

129. In the context of directing primary research into areas that are most effectively studied on a global scale and under international auspices, UNDCP is initiating two studies on the environmental impact of illicit coca and opium poppy cultivation and on the effects of primary commodity price fluctuations on the illicit cultivation of coca and opium poppy. Collaborative arrangements for undertaking the first study are being explored with the International Institute for Environment and Development in London. The studies will be based on detailed investigations in South-East and South-West Asia, as well as in three of the Central Asian republics of the Commonwealth of Independent States. The second study on commodity price fluctuations is likely to be done in cooperation with the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. Both activities should be under way in 1995. Another study, entitled "Economic reform and the implications of criminal finance", was prepared. It is the first of a research study series launched at the end of 1994.

130. The Laboratory continued to implement an international proficiency testing scheme, to evaluate and improve the performance of national laboratories in developing countries, as part of the international quality assurance programme. To date, 73 laboratories from 57 countries participate in the scheme. As an adjunct to the quality assurance programme, a "Glossary of quality assurance terms" has been prepared. In addition, a manual on good laboratory practices is under preparation.

131. The UNDCP laboratory proceeded with the decentralization policy of its training activities during 1994, having created two regional centres in Ghana and Niger for the Western African countries. An agreement with the Government of Gabon is under consideration to establish a similar centre for countries in central Africa, bringing the number of regional centres to five. The number of institutions that collaborate with the training activities also increased to 13 during 1994. The resulting increase in the network of training partners, the addition of substances to the schedules of the 1961, 1971 and 1988 Conventions and new technological developments led to the revision of the existing training curricula. As a consequence, revised and harmonized training curricula and syllabuses were developed for international use by a consultative meeting held at Helsinki from 29 August to 2 September 1994. In 1994, 58 fellows from 39 countries were trained under the aegis of UNDCP. In addition, two workshops involving the heads of national laboratories participating in the Balkan route and in the Caribbean projects were held to discuss regional problems related to drug testing and to develop common strategies.

132. The UNDCP laboratory assisted in the establishment or strengthening of 46 laboratories in 26 countries in Africa, Asia, central and eastern Europe and Latin America. In addition, the distribution of drugs and precursor kits continued (792 kits to 36 countries), as did the distribution of reference samples (1,176 to 48 countries). In addition to those mentioned earlier, publications in 1994 included a revised version of the "Rapid testing methods of drugs of abuse".

133. Knowledge of the composition of the impurities in drugs can give valuable clues about the method of manufacture and their origin. UNDCP laboratory research has therefore continued to focus on the development of methodologies for the chemical characterization of selected seized psychotropic substances (pemoline, methaqualone and phenethylamine) for future wider application to other controlled drugs.

IV. EVALUATION

A. Policy matters

134. The year 1994 was the first full year for the implementation of the evaluation policy and procedures described in the report of the Executive Director to the thirty-seventh session of the Commission. Under the policy a distinction is made between project evaluations and thematic evaluations. Project evaluations concern individual technical cooperation projects, and are decided upon by the parties involved, normally within the tripartite framework governing technical cooperation. Thematic evaluations can address any aspect of UNDCP activities, and have a thematic or sector-oriented character. They provide information and analysis for the formulation of UNDCP policies and strategies.

135. As a follow-up to the thematic evaluation of alternative development activities in the Andean subregion which was carried out in 1993, standard performance indicators for alternative development activities are being established by UNDCP. As of 1995, the performance indicators will be included in new alternative development projects.

B. Project evaluations

136. Twelve project evaluations covering 15 projects had been completed at the time of the preparation of the present report. Ten of them are summarized below. Another seven evaluations covering 11 projects were scheduled for completion before the end of 1994.

137. An evaluation of a large drug abuse prevention, treatment and rehabilitation project in India drew attention to significant deficiencies in project design, implementation and impact. In particular, specification of project strategies and establishment of adequate implementation and management structures had been insufficient and linkages with existing institutions weak. Those problems were traced, at least partly, to the absence of a common understanding between the United Nations Fund for Drug Abuse Control (UNFDAC), which subsequently became part of UNDCP, and the host Government and beneficiaries on the need for such demand reduction activities. The recommendations contained in the evaluation were discussed at a tripartite review meeting held in May 1994. As a result, the Government has taken a number of steps to improve not only the impact of outside assistance, but also coordination between ministries. The Government has also focused on the development of replicable demonstration projects and a mechanism for the systematic assessment and monitoring of the drug abuse situation in the country.

138. An ex post evaluation was undertaken of a demand reduction project in Guyana which had been designed to provide a national clearing-house for information, a nationwide public awareness campaign and an assessment of the need for a treatment and rehabilitation system. In the evaluation it was found that the project, which had begun in 1988, suffered from poor management, which necessitated ending the project. It was pointed out that neither the Government, the executing agency (UNDP/OPS) nor UNFDAC had been diligent in monitoring project implementation, with the result that problems became irremediable before they were uncovered.

139. The evaluation of two alternative development projects in the Lao People's Democratic Republic indicated good overall results. The larger of the two projects, which began in 1989, was considered to have been successful in reaching the project objectives. The report recommended applying the approaches used to other projects. The smaller project, which began in 1992 as a pilot project, was also considered a success. Both projects, however, could have been more effective in ensuring sustainability, particularly through development or strengthening of farmers associations and private sector activities,

training of local people to participate in outreach activities, and involving relevant government officials in project planning, management and monitoring. The evaluation report served, *inter alia*, to focus follow-up projects more clearly on drug control concerns, with other donors being sought to finance components related to technical development activities such as road construction. Managerial structures as well as several other design aspects of the new projects were being revised. Further, the UNDCP country office is working with the Government to address policy issues relating to development of national forests and land use.

140. In the evaluation of an alternative development project in Peru, which began in 1992, it was found that the project had achieved positive results. The importance of planning project activities to ensure sustainability was underlined. Specifically, although the project was moving towards sustainability, there was a need to strengthen the managerial capacity of farmers' organizations and to diversify economic activity and provide support for land ownership by smallholders. Equally important was the need to secure the commitment of national, regional and local institutions to alternative development activities in general and project support in particular. Alternative development activities should also be placed in the context of national and regional development plans. UNDP/OPS at Lima has since initiated corrective measures identified in the evaluation. The evaluation report, after having been discussed with the donor, was to be further reviewed at a tripartite meeting to be held in January 1995. The concerns raised in the report have already been taken fully into account in the elaboration of another alternative development project for the Apurimac Valley.

141. The objective of a Government-executed project in Bolivia was to improve the image of alternative development and encourage farmers to participate in that type of activity. It was to be achieved by developing a communication strategy on alternative development and promoting the transmission of a common message by all institutions involved. The evaluation showed that the project integrated well with, and was complementary to, existing alternative development activities. It was recommended that the project be extended, and that the Government incorporate a social communications component into the draft master plan.

142. A project in Ecuador designed to improve the capabilities of the National Police and the National Council for the Control of Narcotic and Psychotropic Substances through the provision of equipment and training in radio communications, transport, sniffer-dog facilities and precursors was evaluated. It was found that the results and impact of the project were very good. Law enforcement capabilities had been strengthened by the very high standard of the outputs produced, and a significant number of drug seizures could be credited to the project. It was pointed out, however, that such results would be difficult to sustain without the continued presence of the chief technical adviser, and that future maintenance of the laboratories was questionable. It was recommended, *inter alia*, that further support should be extended to the Government, subject to the undertaking of a feasibility study on cross-border cooperation. It was noted that projects of this nature should include performance indicators as well as provisions to ensure maintenance of equipment and to limit its use to the intended beneficiaries. Appropriate follow-up action was to be discussed at the tripartite review meeting scheduled for January 1995.

143. Two projects covering provision of equipment and training for law enforcement officials in Brazil were evaluated. The larger of the two projects aimed at improving interdiction and investigation capabilities of the Brazilian Federal Police by providing radio communications, surveillance, transport and other technical equipment, as well as training in their use. It was found that the project did not have clear objectives; neither had a work plan been prepared, nor were achievement indicators identified. Various assessment missions became necessary to ascertain precise equipment needs. Counterpart support in the form of funding and maintenance was also weak. Despite these and other problems, the equipment provided was appropriate, and communications and logistical capacity were improved. In

respect of the forensic analysis capacity that was to be strengthened by the project, outputs were produced as required, but the objective could not be met because of insufficient training and human resources. In July 1994, the Federal Police seized 7.2 tonnes of cocaine using equipment provided by the project. The Government has indicated its intention to implement the recommendations contained in the evaluation within existing budget constraints, pending possible follow-up activities that may be presented to UNDCP for support.

144. The smaller of the two projects aimed at improving the operational capacity of the police through knowledge of drug issues. That was to be achieved by enhancing the training capacity of the Federal Police, which would be used to train police forces at the decentralized level. The project, which reached beyond the Federal Police to benefit other officers involved in fighting drugs, was found to have been better conceived and executed than the larger project, in addition to having had a substantial positive impact at relatively small cost. Forty instructors and 2,300 police officers received training at what was described as a very high standard. Another benefit of the project was improved relationships among the different police services. In the evaluation it was pointed out, however, that the overall impact of the project was difficult to quantify, as the numbers of officers trained was still small compared to the identified needs.

145. An evaluation was done of the global project that provides UNDCP with registry and archives services. The evaluation established that the quality of the services provided was good, that the cost was relatively low, and that the function was in line with United Nations practice. It was noted, however, that registry and archives was a core function, and should therefore not be funded through a project.

146. Findings, conclusions and recommendations of project evaluations are routinely provided to the parties to the project, and considered at tripartite review meetings to improve project performance and help to plan future activities. The use made of project evaluations conducted in 1993 is described in section D below.

C. Thematic evaluations

147. Of the five thematic evaluations conducted during the year, the evaluation of UNDCP technical cooperation activities in support of demand reduction was the most significant. The evaluation was undertaken in response to the UNDCP decision to develop, as one of its strategic objectives for 1995, a comprehensive and balanced approach requiring increased emphasis on demand reduction activities, in particular drug abuse prevention.

148. The purpose of the thematic evaluation was fourfold: to analyse the current UNDCP role in response to its drug demand reduction mandate; to study the distribution of resources within subsectors and among regions and countries; to appraise the complementarity of UNDCP-funded activities with demand reduction activities of national institutions and bilateral or multilateral agencies; and to examine UNDCP project selection and implementation processes, including the choice of methodologies and modalities of execution.

149. UNDCP demand reduction activities and multisectoral activities with demand reduction components implemented during the 1992-1993 biennium were considered in the thematic evaluation. The evaluation was conducted in two phases. In view of the relationship between demand reduction initiatives and local social and cultural conditions, the first phase consisted of three separate evaluations of UNDCP demand reduction activities in each of three geographical regions, namely Africa, Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean. The second phase built upon the three regional evaluations and involved an analysis of the overall approach taken by UNDCP in demand reduction. Given the

mandates of UNICEF, ILO, UNESCO and WHO, as well as their role as executing agencies of many of the projects under study, those agencies were invited to provide their inputs to the evaluation process.

150. Based upon the analyses, and taking into account available resources and expertise, the evaluation was to include recommendations on how best to exploit the comparative advantages of UNDCP in future. The three regional reports and the overall report were submitted to UNDCP subsequent to the finalization of the present report.

151. Also of significance for the implementation of the UNDCP mandate in demand reduction was the evaluation of the project that had served as the basis for UNDCP - and prior to its establishment, UNFDAC - funding of global projects executed by WHO. The evaluation focused on the interaction between UNDCP and WHO in terms of project development, management and reporting. It was found, *inter alia*, that only a modest share of resources for demand reduction was allocated to WHO. The activities undertaken were relatively small-scale and of short duration, with little coherence and few linkages among them. Delays and shortcomings in the assessment of project proposals by UNDCP was noted, as was the fact that criteria for approval of projects were somewhat unclear. As a result, the practical working relationships between the two organizations had deteriorated.

152. It was concluded that the problems were rooted in the failure of both organizations to appreciate the implications of the new structure and mandate of UNDCP, the establishment of the WHO Programme on Substance Abuse and the designation of that Programme as the focal point for drug abuse matters in WHO. Adding to those difficulties was the fact that while WHO had some elements of an overall strategy for demand reduction, they were not shown to fit in with the priorities of UNDCP. That deficiency was compounded by the absence of a clear UNDCP strategy on demand reduction.

153. In view of the evaluation findings, UNDCP decided, *inter alia*, that a more complete and detailed strategy on demand reduction would be elaborated, and that a memorandum of understanding would be exchanged between UNDCP and WHO. UNDCP would also take the lead in proposing to WHO and other United Nations agencies the preparation of a joint programme in demand reduction at the global level for the next four years. Once the programme is agreed upon, joint efforts may be organized to secure funding for the activities envisaged. Funding of activities of United Nations agencies would continue to be considered project by project, maintaining established quality standards. Projects would be subject to evaluation in accordance with UNDCP practice. The possibility of establishing a standing group of outside experts to assess project proposals on demand reduction, irrespective of their source, would be explored.

154. An evaluation was also done of UNDCP reporting practices and obligations to the Commission on Narcotic Drugs. Recommendations of the evaluator for implementation by the Secretariat pointed to a number of technical changes required to improve the format and content of the documents, to ensure their timely preparation and distribution, to reduce the volume of documentation, and to strengthen interaction between UNDCP and the Commission on the establishment of documentation requirements. Those recommendations were approved by the Executive Director and are being implemented by the Secretariat.

155. The evaluation also contained a number of recommendations which the Commission may wish to take into account in order to further improve and reduce the volume of its documentation (see paragraphs 7-19 of document E/CN.7/1995/16).

156. At the request of INCB, an evaluation was conducted of the usefulness and impact of INCB technical publications. That evaluation, which involved contacts with Governments as well as companies manufacturing and exporting narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, provided specific technical

recommendations on how to render the publications more useful, particularly for national drug control administrators in their efforts to control the licit trade. The results of the evaluation have been provided to INCB.

157. Since its establishment, UNDCP has used consultants to provide advice on managerial and technical issues, to assist in preparing papers and documentation for conferences and meetings, to conduct training, to assist in preparing technical cooperation projects, to evaluate UNDCP activities, to serve as members of fact-finding missions, and to produce public relations material. In 1993, consultancies amounted to 193 work-months at a cost of \$1,401,740.

158. It was against such a background that it was decided to conduct an evaluation to review the utilization of consultants by UNDCP since its establishment. The evaluation was to assess whether UNDCP had complied with United Nations administrative rules; whether consultancies had supported and complemented the normal functions of the offices; whether they had been properly prepared and managed; and whether outputs had been of sufficient quality and been used for the intended purpose. That evaluation had not been completed at the time of the preparation of the present report.

D. Follow-up and feedback

159. An analysis was conducted of the follow-up to evaluations conducted in 1993, focusing on whether evaluation results had contributed to improving the efficiency and effectiveness of UNDCP activities.

Summaries of evaluations undertaken during 1993 were presented to the Commission at its thirty-seventh session (see E/CN.7/1994/CRP.8). Follow-up to seven evaluations were analysed: alternative development activities in the Andean subregion; demand reduction projects in Colombia; support for the Special Development Unit in the North-West Frontier Province of Pakistan; integrated drug demand reduction in Pakistan; the UNDCP alternative development programme in Thailand; prevention of illicit use of drugs in the Dominican Republic; and development of forensic laboratories in the Caribbean subregion.

160. The analysis showed that both project and thematic evaluations had had a significant impact on the work of UNDCP, both in improving specific activities and providing input to the development of more effective policies. Evaluation results have been used extensively not only by UNDCP staff, principally the regional sections and field offices, but also project management, executing agencies and government counterparts.

161. An evaluation was conducted late in 1993 following completion of a forensic laboratory development project in the Bahamas, Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. Project activities had included establishment of a regional training centre at Port-of-Spain and the creation or strengthening of laboratory facilities in other countries. The evaluation report provided important input to a consultative meeting at the global level held at Helsinki in August 1994, at which standards were agreed for laboratory training programmes. Further, the report was to serve as substantive input to a subregional meeting scheduled to take place in the Caribbean at the end of 1994. At that meeting, technical, managerial, regional collaboration and technical cooperation needs were to be discussed, as well as measures required by Governments in respect of staffing and equipment maintenance to improve laboratory services.

162. The evaluation of UNDCP alternative development programme in Thailand is illustrative of the use made of the conclusions and recommendation of thematic evaluations. That evaluation, which was conducted early in 1993, covered six integrated alternative development projects in the northern hills and one project to improve overall coordination and monitoring. In the evaluation it had been recommended that UNDCP conclude its involvement in alternative development in the country and hand

over project activities to the Government. That has since been done. It was further recommended that UNDCP focus its efforts on demand reduction, and, through its subregional programme, also on law enforcement in the border areas. In response to the evaluation results, a demand reduction project that emphasized prevention measures was launched in 1994. Two other demand reduction projects are under development. UNDCP is also continuing to pursue law enforcement initiatives through the subregional programme of cooperation.

V. FINANCIAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE MATTERS

163. The initially approved budget of UNDCP for the biennium 1994-1995 amounted to \$201,888,000, including an amount under the regular budget of \$13,998,700 and extrabudgetary resources of \$187,889,300 supported from the Fund of UNDCP. The initial allocation for 1994 amounted to \$94,712,000, with a regular budget component of \$6,822,700 and an extrabudgetary amount of \$87,889,300. Of the 1994 budget of the Fund of UNDCP, an amount of \$6,993,400 relates to headquarters, \$6,009,300 to field operations and \$74,886,600 to project activities.

164. Total income in 1994 for the Fund of UNDCP is estimated at \$64,700,000. Compared to the approved budget of \$87,889,300, an operating deficit of \$23,189,300 is expected for 1994.

165. The appropriation under the regular budget of UNDCP was increased in 1994. Programme budget implication statements were submitted to the Commission at its thirty-seventh session in response to new mandates, including the meetings of the working group on maritime cooperation and the meetings of the ad hoc intergovernmental advisory group to prepare an assessment of the issues covered in General Assembly resolution 48/12. Regular budget resources for the biennium 1994-1995 was increased by \$140,000, of which \$95,000 relate to 1994. For the Fund of UNDCP, the Executive Director elaborated the revised programme budget for the biennium 1994-1995 and the outline for the biennium 1996-1997 in accordance with the new budget cycle as approved by the Commission in its resolution 13 (XXXVI).

166. In 1994, the Executive Director issued the financial statements of the Fund of UNDCP covering the biennium 1992-1993. That was the first time the Executive Director exercised such authority as provided for by the General Assembly in its resolution 46/185 C (XVI). The biennium 1992-1993 marked a turning point for UNDCP. For the first time, expenditure exceed income and the balance of the Fund declined. In the report of the United Nations Board of Auditors to the General Assembly on the financial statements, three main recommendations were listed. It was noted that UNDCP should: review and simplify its financial accounting arrangements; formalize and clarify its arrangements for receiving audited expenditure statements from its executing agencies; and consult the Treasury Division of the United Nations Secretariat on a regular basis to ensure that the investment policies meet the specific needs and requirements of UNDCP.

167. Some of the recommendations raised by the Board of Auditors were also put forward on other occasions. In its report on the budget documents submitted to the reconvened thirty-sixth session of the Commission, the Advisory Committee on Budgetary Questions recommended that the Executive Director closely monitor and keep under review the current administrative and personnel arrangements in the light of the ongoing restructuring exercise at the United Nations. Furthermore, in the report of the Secretary-General on the restructuring of the United Nations Secretariat (A/49/336), the need has been expressed to redefine the accounting function at Vienna, currently shared between the Accounts Division at Headquarters, the United Nations Office at Vienna and UNDCP. The issues were taken up with United Nations Headquarters. A marked improvement has already been achieved by improving the investment arrangement for the Fund of UNDCP. An understanding has been reached which is expected to result in a decentralization of the accounting function for the Fund of UNDCP from New York to Vienna.

168. In the personnel area, administrative instructions were issued by the Under-Secretary-General for Administration and Management on 14 September 1993 outlining the authority of the Executive Director in UNDCP personnel matters. In particular, the Secretary-General delegated to the Executive Director the responsibility for administering, in the name of the Secretary-General, the Staff Regulations and Staff Rules in respect of staff paid from the Fund of UNDCP. It was also decided that the staff of UNDCP should be recruited and administered by the Personnel Service of the United Nations Office at Vienna on behalf of the Executive Director. During 1994, liaison between UNDCP and the Personnel Service of the United Nations Office at Vienna was clarified through the issuance of detailed instructions. First experience with the new arrangement point to the need for further improvements. UNDCP is defining a rotation policy between Headquarters and field office staff and working towards a simplified recruitment and promotion machinery. In addition, new concepts are being elaborated to facilitate the integration of personnel arrangements regardless of the source of funding, including regular budget and extrabudgetary resources.

169. As of 1 January 1994, the administration of the UNDCP field office network has been adjusted in accordance with the new UNDP/UNDCP working arrangement concluded on 21 October 1993. The arrangement defines the functions of UNDCP Representatives, Directors of Regional Offices and Country Directors. The arrangement also defined the new personnel and financial arrangements for UNDCP field operations, which included a transfer of the administrative responsibility for international staff from UNDP to UNDCP. In addition, the UNDCP field office staff are responsible for certifying expenditures against the UNDCP field office budget. That function was previously performed by UNDP.

170. Following a decision by the Secretary-General to streamline information activities at Vienna, the External Relations and Public Affairs Unit was abolished on 1 June 1994. The Resources Mobilization and Inter-agency Coordination Office was established and entrusted with fund-raising, inter-agency coordination and liaison with non-governmental organizations.

VI. FUND-RAISING

A. Financial status

171. The foregoing analysis of income projections for the Fund of UNDCP tends to confirm a rapidly growing funding gap in the operational activities of UNDCP. Starting with 1992 as the year of transition when expenditures exceeded income for the first time, current estimates show that the deficit will grow during the coming years, with early 1996 as the turning-point, following the depletion of UNDCP funds and cash balances.

172. As mentioned earlier, the estimated income in 1994 for the Fund of UNDCP amounted to approximately \$65 million. Of the 1994 total estimated income, government contributions accounted for 93 per cent, interest income for 6 per cent, and income from non-governmental organizations and public donations for 1 per cent.

173. A total of 68 states contributed to the Fund of UNDCP during the biennium 1992-1993, with 17 countries and the Commission of the European Communities providing 91.7 per cent of the total income for that period. In 1994, 45 Governments contributed to the Fund, with 17 countries and the Commission of the European Communities supporting 92.4 per cent of the total income for that year.

174. As to the distribution of income through general-purpose and special-purpose funds, while special-purpose contributions still represented a 52.2 per cent of the income as opposed to the 47.8 per cent of

general-purpose contributions, there has been a marked trend in recent years towards general-purpose funding in accordance with the request of the Commission on Narcotic Drugs.

B. Resource mobilization priorities

175. In its resolution 14 (XXXVI) of 17 December 1993, the Commission on Narcotic Drugs at its reconvened thirty-sixth session requested the Executive Director to present his views on how to generate adequate income for the implementation of UNDCP activities. In response to that resolution, new priorities for resource mobilization have been elaborated. The targets outlined below, which are distinct from resource mobilization objectives pertaining to United Nations entities, have been established.

1. Target 1: strengthening and diversifying donor contributions

176. The main target is and should continue to be focused on current government donors. UNDCP should strive to ensure a sustained level of international commitment as reflected in donor contributions. Prerequisites for a productive relationship between UNDCP and government donors are enhanced dialogue, programme delivery, transparency and regular reporting, stressing the impact of manifold activities of UNDCP. Expanding contacts with key committees and commissions of parliaments as well as with regional and international parliamentary institutions are also necessary.

177. Linked to the above-mentioned activities would be the launching of related initiatives such as regular bilateral strategy-building exercises between UNDCP and individual donors, visits to the field by donors, convening of periodic consultations on specific themes or areas of intervention and the active involvement of UNDCP in consultative round-table discussions and meetings of donors and international organizations.

178. UNDCP has begun to encourage its representatives in the field to nurture resource contacts at the local level with a view to increasing the resource base available to it. In particular, on the basis of country programme frameworks, the UNDCP representative is well-placed to clearly establish the link between UNDCP and government priorities at the country level. As soon as the Governments of donor countries become involved, UNDCP headquarters could then take on a more integral role in nurturing the ties initiated at the field level.

179. At present, the bulk of resources at the disposal of UNDCP come from a handful of developed countries and the Commission of the European Communities. (In 1993, 99.2 per cent of voluntary resources were contributed by 16 countries only; indeed, one Government alone contributed 40.6 per cent of such funds.) It will therefore be necessary to broaden the base of financial support and obtain the resources needed by UNDCP to discharge all of its functions effectively.

180. Special-purpose contributions should be solicited from Arab sources, for instance through the Gulf Arab Programme for United Nations Development Organizations, grouping Bahrain, Iraq, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, but there exists a number of other sources of funding in the Arab world. There is also the fund of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) at Vienna, to which OPEC members contribute and which, in the past, has financed projects submitted by United Nations agencies. South-West Asia and the central Asian countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States are of natural interest to those potential donors.

181. Some countries and areas of East Asia, such as Brunei Darussalam, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong may be prepared to become substantial contributors to UNDCP, especially with regard to their growing concerns over issues affecting their region. In addition to country-specific

fund-raising initiatives, UNDCP should also seek support from Governments brought together under interparliamentary arrangements.

182. An approach to be further expanded is the one followed in specific cases, as in Lebanon, by which interested donors, United Nations agencies, recipient countries and non-governmental organizations are brought together in informal technical consultations to examine specific themes or areas of intervention. In fact, the technical consultations have proven an extremely effective instrument for focusing international attention on specific drug-related problems and translating that concern into sustained financial assistance. They should continue to play a major part in the overall strategic framework of UNDCP.

2. Target 2: extra-government sources of financing UNDCP

183. Collaboration with the private sector would reflect both the need for new resources (since government contributions are becoming scarcer) and also a growing interest of private-sector partners in cooperating more directly in specific UNDCP activities. Such an approach will call for a clear distinction among corporations to be targeted, and individual cases should be based on considerations of ethics and principles.

184. UNDCP could harness the private sector for funding a number of its activities. Such funding could take the form of sponsoring a given event or a project formulated and executed by UNDCP, or of a joint venture, under which a private enterprise would contribute not only funding, but also know-how, personnel and equipment.

185. In light of the foregoing, the approach to the private sector would have a twofold character, with businesses being seen as both potential donors and partners of UNDCP activities.

186. Such a relationship is increasingly evolving through a cycle of conferences, the first of which took place at Seville, Spain, in October of 1993, involving North American and European companies. The primary objective of the conference was to promote and enhance the interplay between the private sector and local communities in the prevention of drug abuse. Fifty per cent of the cost of the conference was borne by a group of transnational corporations.

187. A second such conference is planned for April 1995 at Porto Alegre, Brazil, with the participation of Latin American companies. In future, such an initiative could be replicated in other geographic areas. A first concrete example of interaction between the private sector and UNDCP already exists. A group of Brazilian industries in the State of Rio Grande do Sul is funding and partly implementing a UNDCP project concerned with the prevention of drug abuse in the workplace and the family. Such models could be applied in other parts of the world.

188. The mobilization of resources from the private sector in support of UNDCP activities requires particular efforts. Competition is severe. The demands of the private sector are normally rigorous in terms of the high-quality required in the formulation and execution of the activity to be funded, and identifying and maintaining appropriate contacts with funding sources in the private sector entails staff time and most often necessitates seed money.

189. Finally, international non-governmental organizations in donor countries could be seen as potential donors. Contributions from voluntary organizations in donor countries have been and are made to UNDCP. The most visible example is the donation - over \$400,000 - provided by the Drug Abuse Prevention Centre in Japan. The Centre intends to renew its support each year in the context of the United Nations Decade against Drug Abuse. As the number of potential donors among non-

governmental organizations in the western world is large, a selection has to be made, differentiating between large service organizations (such as OXFAM) and international umbrella organizations (such as the International Council of Voluntary Agencies).

190. Resource mobilization has yet another angle: through UNDCP-supported problem analysis and strategy documents, governments of developing countries will be stimulated to channel a greater share of domestic resources towards drug control.

3. Target 3: mobilizing active sectors of civil society

191. From its inception, UNDCP has stressed the fact that both national Governments and civil society in all its components, especially cause-oriented action groups, must be mobilized and involved in the solution of the drug problem, particularly with regard to demand reduction. Government actions are important in addressing the drug addiction problem, but they are not enough. In a democratic society, public involvement is also essential.

192. As a consequence, UNDCP has tried to extend its relations to new partners in civil society, in order to nurture an overall culture against illicit drugs; to mobilize organizations, action groups and renowned personalities in intensifying efforts to prevent and reduce drug abuse; and to stimulate and enlist greater involvement of community groups, local leaders, opinion makers and role models.

193. All the above initiatives, aimed at seeking increased recognition, understanding and support for UNDCP, have a clear connection with resource mobilization.

194. In the past, UNDCP has endeavoured to consider fund raising, public information and the mobilization of civil society as coherent and mutually reinforcing parts of an overall external relations and public affairs strategy. Activities under that strategy have included special programmes such as the International Private Sector Conference on Drug Abuse, the Goodwill Ambassadors Programme, cooperation with the International Olympic Committee and the International Meetings of Mayors against Drugs. Such an approach will be continued under a self-financing global scheme with clear objectives. UNDCP will seek to reach a wider audience, particularly in donor countries, through actions that are normally grouped under headings such as advocacy, image-building, increased visibility and public awareness.

195. To achieve increased awareness of the drug problem and of UNDCP work, a more aggressive campaign is required, through contacts with the media, preparation of news items on the achievements of UNDCP and its position on major issues, high-quality publications and brochures (illustrated country-level operational profiles etc.), poster campaigns, print, television and radio advertising and special fund-raising events. Field Directors should also bolster the image of UNDCP at their level, particularly with regard to the local donor community.

Notes

¹United Nations publication, Sales No. E.88.XI.1.

²Resolution S-17/2, annex.

³United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 520, No. 7515.

⁴Ibid., vol. 976, No. 14152.

⁵Ibid., vol. 1019, No. 14956.

⁶E/CONF.82/15 and Corr. 2.

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GENERAL DEBATE

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF DRUG ABUSE
AND ILLICIT TRAFFICKING: AN INTERIM REPORT

Note by the Secretariat

*E/CN.7/1995/1.

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Summary

The present report is an interim survey of the economic and social consequences of illicit drug abuse and trafficking. It responds to a variety of mandates, from the General Assembly and the Commission on Narcotic Drugs, for such an assessment. Given the complexity of the issue, the inaccessibility of some of the data needed to address it and the limitations of space, the present report can provide only a preliminary overview.

The economic consequences of drug abuse and trafficking spread across a wide spectrum. Identifiable costs of drug abuse in consumer countries seem to range from 0.5 to 1.3 per cent of gross domestic product, the largest part of which involves drug-related crime and law enforcement costs. The health costs of a drug addict appear to be some 80 per cent higher than those of an average citizen in the same age group. Drug abuse has a negative impact upon productivity. The illicit drug industry seems to generate significant rates of employment in only a few producer countries in Asia and Latin America, covering approximately one tenth of the economically active population. In most countries, however, the employment-generating effect remains below the 1 per cent benchmark. Prices of illicit drugs reflect primarily the perceived level of risk in distribution and sales. Among the many determinants of prices, therefore, the success or failure of interdiction appears to be one of the most crucial. Illicit drug money is mostly spent on conspicuous consumption, and not generally used for productive investment. Even when invested, it is not conducive to sustainable economic growth. The impact of an illicit drug industry on the balance of trade and of payments of a producer country may be positive in the short run, but tends in the long run to crowd out non-drug exports, and to lead to "Dutch Disease". Large drug funds circulating in an economy severely complicate macro-economic management, and restrict the room for manoeuvre of a Government.

The social consequences of drug abuse spread across an equally wide spectrum, though the elements are not always quantifiable. Social integration and cohesion, at the family, community or even broader levels, are almost always compromised by an escalating drug problem. Even though the number of drug-related deaths may not have reached epidemic proportions for countries as a whole, the nexus between drug abuse, acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) and prostitution makes for a mushroom effect, endangering the health of much larger sections of the population. Even more important is the nexus between drug abuse and crime, with, for instance, half of all theft in some countries being directly drug-related. Illicit drug money plays an ever more important role for many insurgency movements and some terrorist groups around the world. The violence, corruption and fragmentation engendered by illicit drug abuse and trafficking weaken civil society and thereby strike at the very foundation of some nations.

INTRODUCTION

A. Legislative background

1. The present report is prepared in fulfilment of mandates originating in General Assembly resolution A/44/142 of 15 December 1989, in which the Assembly, inter alia, called for a study on the economic and social consequences of illicit traffic in drugs, with the assistance of a group of intergovernmental experts.

2. An Intergovernmental Expert Group met at Vienna from 21 to 25 May and 9 to 25 July 1990. It drew up the framework of a future study dealing with illicit markets and the production, distribution and consumption of illicit drugs, and adopted a set of recommendations that were presented to the General Assembly at its forty-fifth session (see A/45/535). The Assembly invited the Commission on Narcotic Drugs to consider the study outline and recommendations of the Expert Group. Because of the workload at its thirty-fourth session, the Commission could not complete its consideration of the item. It therefore invited the Executive Director of the United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) to analyse the recommendations of the Expert Group and suggest possible follow-up action (see Commission on Narcotic Drugs resolution 7 (XXXIV) of 9 May 1991). The General Assembly, at its forty-sixth session, was apprised of the progress made (see A/46/338), and it reiterated its request to the Commission to consider the recommendations of the Expert Group at its thirty-fifth session (see Assembly resolution 46/103 of 16 December 1991).

3. At its thirty-fifth session, the Commission reviewed the recommendations of the Expert Group and the comments of the Executive Director thereon (see E/CN.7/1992/11). The recommendations addressed a wide spectrum of issues which can be subsumed under two headings: the general lack of reliable data required to determine the economic and social consequences of drug abuse and illicit trafficking; and measures which might be taken to address the problem of money-laundering. In his analysis, the Executive Director dealt with the recommendations in detail. It reported activities that UNDCP had undertaken or initiated in that regard, including: implementation of the International Drug Abuse Assessment System (IDAAS); attempts to improve UNDCP data on illicit traffic and precursors; and cooperative arrangements with the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) and the United Nations University in their joint research project entitled "Socio-economic and political impact of production, trade and use of illicit narcotic drugs". In discussing the question of developing a reliable annual estimate of illicit drug production, distribution and consumption, the Executive Director noted that the Expert Group had underestimated the complexity and difficulty of the task.

4. The Commission concurred with the Executive Director that the problems related to data collection were extremely complex and would not be easy to solve.¹ Several members of the Commission expressed the wish that UNDCP should report, at the next session, on the progress of initiatives and activities in that context.

5. Progress was reported to the General Assembly at its forty-seventh (see A/47/378 and Assembly resolution 47/102 of 16 December 1992) and forty-eighth sessions. The Assembly recommended to the Commission that it consider including the issue of economic and social consequences of drug abuse and illicit trafficking as an item on its agenda (see Assembly resolution 48/112 of 20 December 1993). At its thirty-seventh session, the Commission decided that the subject could be addressed adequately in its general debate.

6. The present report therefore consists of two parts. The introduction, in addition to setting out legislative mandates, summarizes progress since 1992 on selected subjects identified by the Expert

Group. Those activities, though reported annually to the General Assembly, have not hitherto been reported to the Commission under the heading of economic and social consequences of illicit drug abuse and trafficking.

B. Progress since 1992

7. A number of efforts have been undertaken in recent years to better understand the economic and social consequences of illicit drug production, trafficking and consumption, and to transform the accumulated information into policy relevant knowledge and more effective operational activity. The reinforcement of knowledge has taken place at two levels. At the general level, UNDCP has strengthened its data collection capabilities by identifying its own needs in the area of data collection. An economic research centre in North America assisted in carrying out the analysis, the results of which were gathered in a report entitled "Enhancing the role of UNDCP data collection and analysis".² Some effort has also been directed towards harmonizing drug-related data collected by other bodies and agencies within the United Nations system, as well as by the International Criminal Police Organization (ICPO)/Interpol and the World Customs Organization (WCO). Progress in those and other related areas is described in more detail in the report of the Executive Director on the activities of the programme.³

8. UNDCP has launched major studies in two Asian countries, both of which are being finalized. They are serving as a model for a series of studies in some Asian and Latin American countries (in cooperation with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)) planned for 1995/96. The Rapid Abuse Assessment System, developed and launched by UNDCP in 1992, provides developing countries with a reasonably inexpensive tool to determine the specific social characteristics of their drug abuse problems. Similar initiatives have been undertaken by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI). Progress is documented in more detail in other reports before the Commission.

9. UNDCP has also organized technical consultations in which Governments and United Nations entities meet to exchange information, including on some aspects of the economic and social impact of drug abuse. Technical consultations are organized on the assumption that drug-related problems are driven by a wide range of economic and social factors, and thus, overcoming those problems requires different agencies and Governments to use their comparative strengths as part of a unified programme of action. By sensitizing other development-oriented organizations to the negative impact of illicit drug production, trafficking and consumption, the technical consultations also serve to raise drug control priorities higher on the global social and economic development agenda.

10. The role of the international financial institutions has long been recognized as crucial to the realization of a multidimensional drug control effort, with a view both to fostering social and economic development of areas affected by drug production and trafficking, as well as to restricting possibilities of money-laundering. UNDCP, therefore, continues its efforts to enlist the support of international financial institutions in tackling the economic and social consequences of illicit drugs.

11. The concept of "alternative development", which implies tackling drug problems with development-related tools, was further refined by UNDCP at two seminars in 1993, one held at Berlin and the other at Lima. That led to a major UNDCP/UNDP project in the Baalbek-Hermel area in Lebanon, which serves as a multisectoral model for the optimal division of labour to achieve alternative development objectives. It includes income generation based on improvements in licit crop cultivation, agricultural extension services, surface water and groundwater irrigation schemes, as well as the upgrading of health, educational and social services. UNDCP has also assisted Governments in

launching similar alternative development interventions in Bolivia, Colombia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Pakistan, Peru and Thailand.³

12. UNDCP efforts in refining the concept of "debt-for-alternative-development swaps" began in July 1992, when it presented the concept at the Expert Group Meeting of the Conversion of Bilateral Assistance, sponsored by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). The matter was further developed in informal consultations during a consultative group meeting for Bolivia sponsored by the World Bank, and held in Paris from 28 to 30 October 1992.³ The concept involves the conversion of bilateral debt into local currency debt, with annual interest payments to be set aside for use for alternative development projects. In 1994, Argentina, Bolivia and Peru launched a subregional programme with UNDCP, designed to pool expertise in the countries concerned and to prepare concrete alternative development projects for debt swap negotiations between creditors and debtors.⁴

13. Finally, UNDCP has also proceeded with assisting several countries in developing master plans for drug control, trying to link drug control efforts systematically with the general development process. Progress is documented in other reports submitted to the Commission³ (see also E/CN.7/1995/16).

C. Sources of information

14. One caveat ought to be made at the outset. The present report is an interim survey of a complex issue, and attempts only to prepare the ground for more detailed investigations and regular periodic reviews. Assessing the economic and social consequences of drug abuse and illicit trafficking is a task that is necessary and yet fraught with difficulties. The necessity derives from the expansive and dynamic nature of the illicit drug problem, which all too often outpaces the capacity to understand its operation. The difficulties are inherent in the nature of the activity: it is illicit, making concealment a necessity for producers, distributors and consumers. Quite apart from this, there is no simple or proven set of indicators to measure the production, distribution and consumption of illicit drugs, far less their economic and social consequences.

15. The sources of the present report are thus as eclectic as its subject matter. The need to expand the information base for such conceptual initiatives is clear, for there can be analytical drawbacks in relying solely on official figures. When official statistics do not fully or accurately reflect drug-related trends, there is a case for cautious use of unofficial data - as long as any and all unofficial sources are clearly recognized and documented as such from the outset. Official sources can, in some cases, be anachronistic, or focus more on the symptoms or effects of drug abuse and trafficking rather than the underlying causes. Furthermore, in most cases, official statistics focus mainly on country-level situations, and the cross-national dimension is not always discernible. The present report therefore uses, but clearly cites and documents, unofficial data where appropriate.

16. Drug abuse country profiles, prepared by UNDCP on the basis of replies submitted by Governments to the annual reports questionnaire,³ have been used as input for the study. It should be noted, however, that the quality and timeliness of some of the official information provided by Governments leaves much to be desired. The response rate to the questionnaire is low, and has actually been declining over the last few years. That clearly restrains the capacity of the Secretariat to provide the Commission with a coherent and accurate global picture. The questionnaire response rates on illicit trafficking, for instance, declined from 65 per cent for the year 1987 to 45 per cent for the year 1992, with information only received in 1993 and 1994. The questionnaire response rate on issues regarding demand reduction fell from 62 per cent for 1987 to 37 per cent for 1992. Similarly, information on precursors provided through other questionnaires to the International Narcotics Control Board (INCB)

has been characterized by low response rates. By November 1993, only 44 per cent of the 196 countries requested had returned those questionnaires.⁴

17. The General Assembly and the Commission required that the findings of the UNRISD and United Nations University project, noted above, should be considered in the preparation of the present report. The project has now been completed, though at the time of writing, an initial survey⁵ and only one of the nine expected country studies had been published.⁶ Drafts of the unpublished studies were, however, made available by UNRISD, and have been used and cited as draft studies. An overview of the nine studies, prepared by the project coordinator, was also available as source material.⁷ The present report also draws heavily on three papers recently prepared by UNDCP. Two of them were submitted to the second Preparatory Committee of the World Summit for Social Development, one entitled "The social and economic impact of drug abuse and control",⁸ which was prepared as a position paper on behalf of the United Nations system, and the other, a discussion paper, entitled "Drugs and development".⁹ The third paper, entitled "The present status of knowledge on the illicit drug industry",¹⁰ was written at the request of the Subcommittee on Drug Control of the Administrative Committee on Coordination (ACC), and considered at its meeting at Vienna from 5 to 7 September 1994. Those three reports are available as conference room papers.

I. EXTENT OF THE ILLICIT DRUG PROBLEM

18. Assessing the economic and social consequences of illicit drug abuse and trafficking implies, first, that some measure of the magnitude of the problem is available, and secondly, that there is some conceptual clarity about the nature of the consequences themselves. In the present state of knowledge, neither of those requirements is completely fulfilled. Estimates of the extent of illicit drug production, distribution and consumption vary enormously, and are often contingent upon the methodology and political orientation of the observer.¹⁰ Work on setting international comparative standards for measuring economic and social consequences of drug abuse is only just beginning,* and, given the complex nature of the problem, will evolve slowly. Those reasons explain why the present report must be preliminary in nature, and why the discussion of consequences is preceded by an overview, in the rest of the present chapter, of selective data to establish the likely magnitude of the problem.

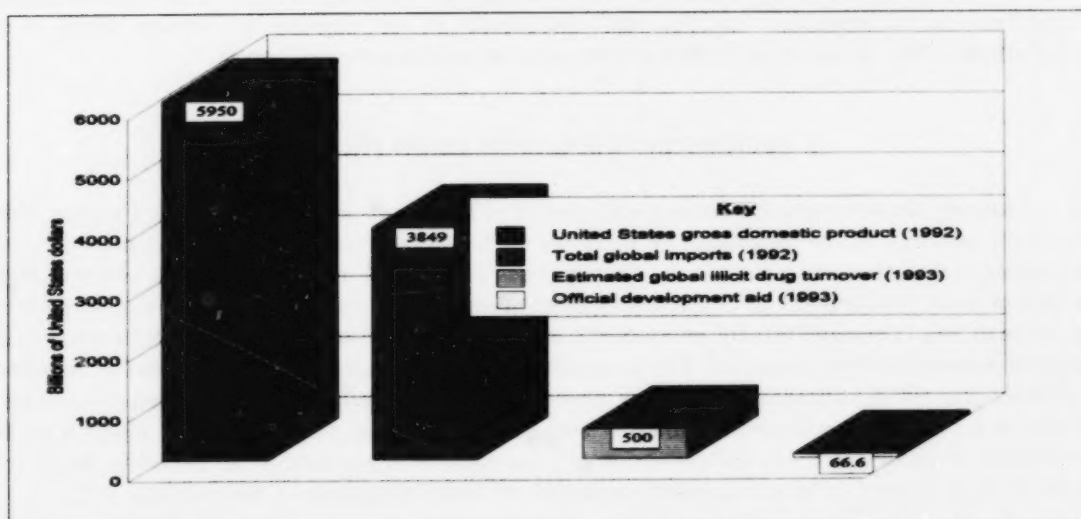
19. The illicit drug problem can, for analytical purposes, be divided into three categories: first, those illicit drugs that are either produced or processed from natural plant products, such as opium poppy - opium - morphine - heroin; secondly, synthetically made illicit drugs, such as amphetamines; and thirdly, psychoactive pharmaceutical drugs that become illicit as a result of being diverted from licit uses or purposes. The present report is concerned primarily with the first, and to a lesser extent with the second, category. The third category is not considered here, not because knowledge about it is scanty, but because its economic and social impact is quite different.

20. Establishing orders of magnitude about the extent of the problem should be done in the light of at least two unique characteristics of the illicit drugs: first, they are all addictive substances - a fact that sometimes blurs the dividing line between use and abuse, as well as between consumption and addiction; and secondly, as commodities that are traded or trafficked, they are distinguished by low volume, but

*The Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse initiated the first cross-national comparative project, and has begun a series of symposia on the subject. The proceedings of the first symposium, held at Banff, Alberta, Canada, in May 1994, are to be published as International Guidelines for Estimating the Costs of Substance Abuse.

enormously high unit cost and value. Against that background, one order of magnitude can be established by considering the annual turnover of the global illicit drug industry: conservative estimates range from 400 billion* to 500 billion United States dollars (US\$) (see figure I). That would be equivalent to approximately one tenth (10 per cent to 13 per cent) of total international trade. It would be larger than international trade in oil, mineral fuels and lubricants, which together account for 9.5 per cent of total international (legal) trade, chemicals (9 per cent of international trade) or food, live animals, beverages and tobacco (also 9 per cent of international trade) (see figure II).** The turnover of the illicit drug industry would be nearly double the turnover of global pharmaceutical companies (assessed at \$215 billion in 1993)*** and seven to eight times as large as the amount spent on official development assistance (\$66.6 billion in 1993).

Figure I. World illicit drug trade
(Comparative international aggregates)



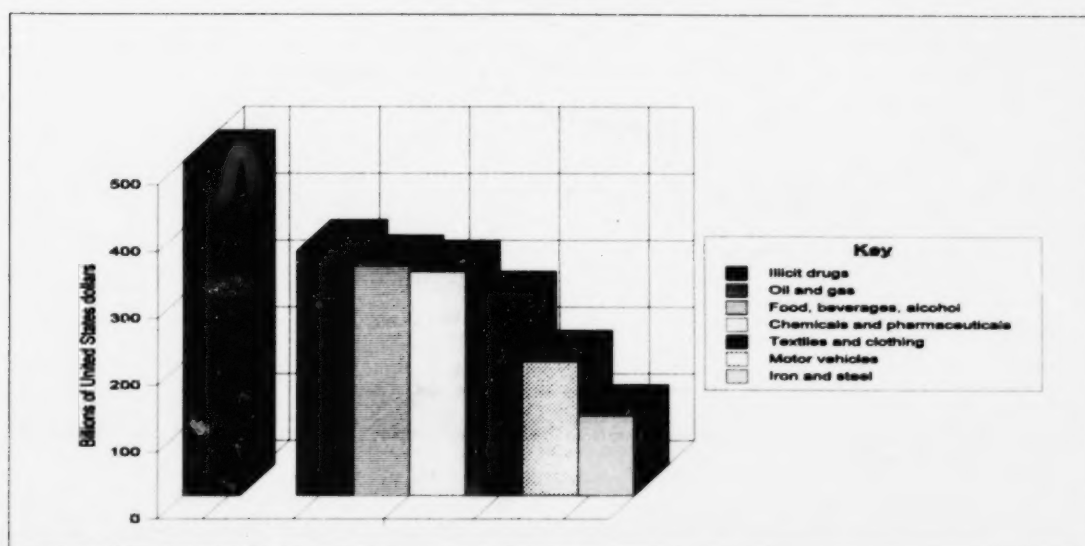
Sources: UNDCP, UNCTAD, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United States Department of Commerce.

*Data submitted by ICPO/Interpol to the International Narcotics Conference, organized by UNESCO in October 1994.

**Global imports in 1992 amounted to \$3,849.4 billion. See International Trade Statistics Yearbook 1992 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.94.XVII.3), vol. I.

***Database of the Institute for Medical Statistics, Vienna.

Figure II. Importance of global illicit drug trade
Turnover of illicit drug trade and international trade (exports)
in major commodities, 1992)



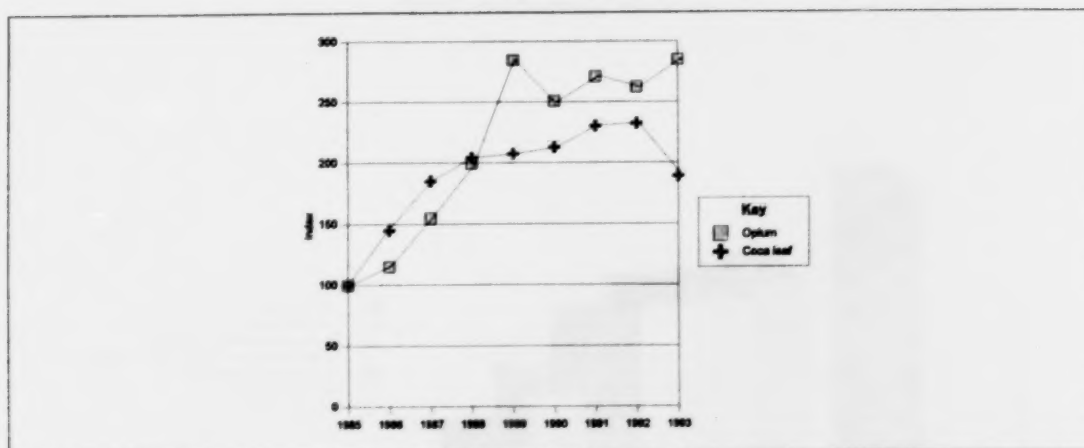
Sources: UNDCP, UNCTAD

A. Production

21. There are no universally accepted figures on illicit drug production. Different methodologies, assumptions and political interests lead to very different estimates. Principal trends and magnitudes are nevertheless clear. Illicit drug production, on the global aggregate, is expanding (see Figure III). That general assessment subsumes different trends in individual illicit crops. Thus, global coca and cannabis production, after having risen dramatically in the 1980s, appear to be stagnating or falling in the 1990s; global opium production, by contrast, is still rising. Table 2 in annex I shows the trends from 1985 to 1993.

22. Illicit crop cultivation is concentrated in certain areas, but frequently shifts within and sometimes between subregions, and sometimes appears in areas where it was not previously given official cognizance. Most of the world's illicit opiates come from the countries of the Golden Crescent (Afghanistan, Iran (Islamic Republic of) and Pakistan), Golden Triangle (Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Thailand) Lebanon and Mexico. Shifting production however makes countries like Colombia, or the central Asian republics of the Commonwealth of Independent States into relatively recent, or potential, major producers of opiates. Coca production, by contrast, is more concentrated, and the three Andean countries (Colombia, Bolivia and Peru) account for more than 98 per cent of the world cocaine supplies. Cannabis is produced in most parts of the world, but new areas such as the central Asian republics of the Commonwealth of Independent States, where previous production was undetermined, now show a potential to become major producers.

Figure III. Trends in global production of opium poppy and coca leaf
(1985 = 100)



Sources: United States Department of State, "International narcotics control strategy report", 1986 and 1994. Figures for 1986 and 1987 are UNDCP estimates.

23. The overwhelming majority of illicit drugs consumed today are still plant products, or plant products that have undergone some semi-synthetic processes. According to a study¹¹ investigating consumption patterns of drug consumers in the United States of America in the early 1990s, the share of illicit drugs other than cocaine, heroin and marijuana, measured in terms of money spent (money is still the only common denominator available for such comparisons)* was 2.2 per cent in 1990 and 4.9 per cent in 1991. In other words, 95 per cent of the illicit drug market in the United States, and probably a similar magnitude would also be true globally, is dominated by traditional plant-based products.

24. Synthetic drug markets are, however, developing rapidly. Only the abundant global supply of natural plant-based illicit drugs seems to have - so far - prevented synthetic drugs from taking the lead. The principal synthetic drugs produced clandestinely are amphetamines and lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD). In addition, a number of other synthetic drugs have recently become popular, including methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA), known as ecstasy, and methcathinone. With retail prices of synthetic drugs in developed countries rather low compared with the unit price of illicit plant-based drugs, and with the rapid spread of consumption of synthetic drugs among various sections of society, the overall importance of synthetic drugs is already much larger than the above-mentioned market share in illicit drug turnover would suggest (compare consumption data in figure VIII).

*So far, only a few attempts have been made to define "average daily doses" of various illicit substances to derive a common unit of measurement. Such a common measure, once internationally accepted, would have the advantage of allowing for the exclusion of distorting price fluctuations in the analysis, and could better measure the relative importance of various drugs by taking into account their purity levels. The current practice of measuring various drugs merely in terms of quantity can be highly misleading for obvious reasons. Using the price as a common denominator entails a large number of other problems. For instance, increased supply can lead to falls in the price level, which may offset most of the quantity increases of a specific drug.

B. Distribution and illicit trafficking

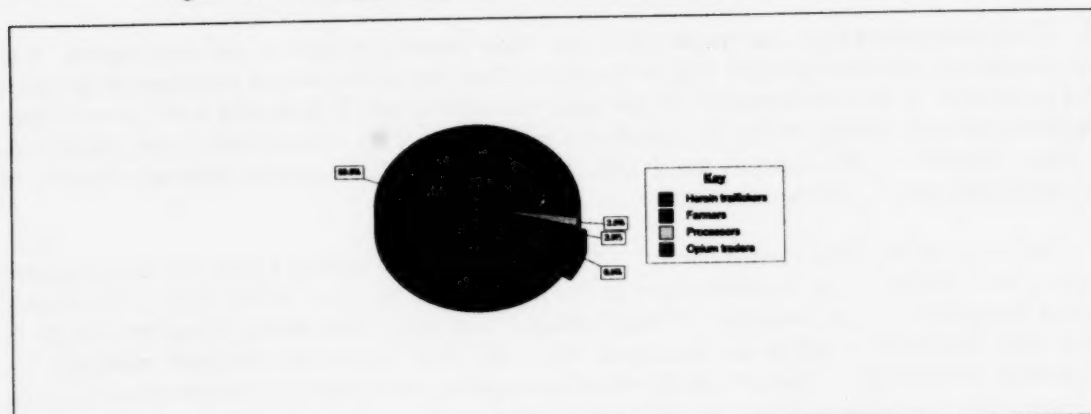
25. Illicit drug trafficking is the crucial link in the chain between production and consumption. It is also far and away the most lucrative stage in the process from the cultivation and processing of the illicit drug to the point of final consumption. In the many routes along which illicit drug traffic moves, there appears to be some spillage on the way, partly because of a tendency of traffickers to pay middlemen in kind. Several transit countries along trafficking routes are consequently showing evidence of increasing drug abuse and consumption.

26. The nine-country study carried out by UNRISD and the United Nations University draws together some of the evidence, in the comprehensive survey published at the outset of the project,⁵ the country studies themselves and the overview of their findings. The latter finds several divergent patterns of illicit drug distribution, which are associated with: the level of activity (whether traffickers are wholesalers, middlemen or retailers); the degree of organization, for example, whether they have payrolls or enforceable "personnel policies", develop specialized departments, have vertical integration, build or struggle over regional or countrywide market shares; the type of drug marketed (for example, cannabis, cocaine, heroin or designer drugs); the existence of trafficker-insurgent-terrorist alliances; and the way organized traffickers compete for market shares.⁷

27. Individuals do not appear to be major players, and early analogies to a cottage industry now make little sense for the illicit drug trade. The trade has become increasingly organized, particularly at the production, wholesale, and middleman levels, pronouncedly so for cocaine and heroin, less so for marijuana. It tends to be controlled by organized groups, and in some cases cartels, often organized along ethnic lines to create stronger cohesiveness.⁷

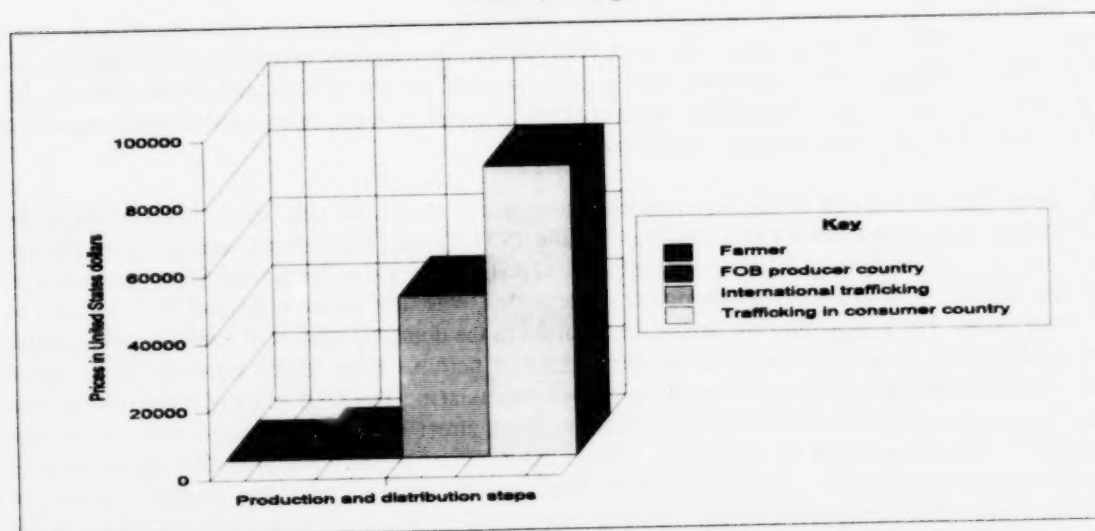
28. More than 90 per cent of the value added (gross profit) of cocaine and heroin is generated at the distribution stage of the illicit drug industry. Taking 1991 figures, for instance, one gram of 100 per cent pure cocaine retailed for \$4.30 in Colombia;⁷ its final retail price in the United States was between \$59 and \$297.¹² The gross profit margin, or value added, was thus between 93 and 98.5 per cent of the retail value. The magnitudes for heroin are similar. In the domestic market of Pakistan, wholesalers and retailers reap about nine tenths of the retail price of heroin. Even larger, however, is the value added by international trafficking when the heroin leaves Pakistan. The f.o.b. price of heroin in Pakistan was \$3,333 per kilogram (1992/93); the retail price on street markets in Europe was on average \$85,600.¹³ The value added by trafficking outside the producer country was therefore 96 per cent of the retail price in Europe. Combining those huge profit margins under the general category of "international" trafficking conceals the fact that nearly half of the total value is in fact added in the national distribution networks of developed countries. For example, taking wholesale and retail prices for 1992 in eight countries (France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Belgium and Portugal), the value added nationally was, on average, 47.5 per cent of retail prices for heroin, and 47.8 per cent for cocaine.¹⁴ In the United States, the "value added" nationally was higher for both cocaine, 68.1 per cent of retail price, and heroin, 57.1 per cent of retail price (see figures IV and V).

Figure IV. Distribution of "value added" of heroin in producer country



Source: UNDCP

Figure V. Generation of "value added" of heroin in distribution network towards Europe



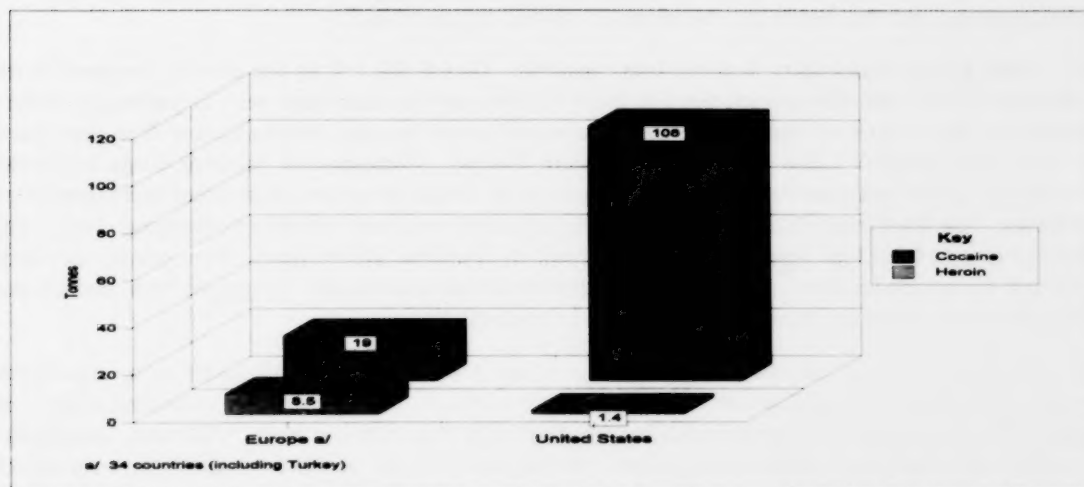
Source: UNDCP

29. Traffic patterns are determined, among other things, by drug type, country of origin and location and size of consumer markets. Cocaine trafficking begins in the Andean region and spreads northward, with North America and Europe as the principal final destinations. The 108 tonnes of cocaine seized in the United States in 1993 alone would have had a street value of \$10 billion to \$20 billion,¹⁵ larger than the individual gross national product (GNP) of more than half of the countries in the world. A further 19 tonnes (1993) were seized in Europe (34 countries; see figure VI).^{*} The route of distribution goes from the Andean countries through Central America, Mexico and the Caribbean region, although alternative routes through South America (Argentina, Brazil), Africa and Europe (partly eastern Europe) have also become popular. Nevertheless, some 50 to 70 per cent of total United States cocaine

^{*}Combined database of UNDCP, ICPO/Interpol and WCO.

imports transit through Mexico, which, in confirmation of the spillage phenomenon noted above, is beginning to show signs of increasing cocaine consumption.¹⁶

Figure VI. Seizures in 1993
(Tonnes)



Sources: WCO, ICPO/Interpol, United States Drug Enforcement Administration and annual reports questionnaires.

30. In 1993, 8.5 tonnes of heroin were seized in Europe (34 countries), compared with 1.4 tonnes in the United States (see figure VI).^{*} Most of Europe's heroin originates in South-West Asia, which provided for almost 90 per cent of Europe's heroin demand in 1992/93. Heroin trafficking for North America, by contrast, largely originates in South-East Asia, which provides about two thirds of North American demand, with the rest coming from Colombia, Mexico and South-West Asia.¹⁷ Most heroin processing takes place close to the point of origin. The route of distribution to North America involves countries and areas such as China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Thailand and, increasingly, African countries for transshipment purposes. The route of heroin smuggling from South-West Asia to Europe largely goes through Pakistan, Islamic Republic of Iran and Turkey and along the Balkan route (which accounts for 80 to 90 per cent of all heroin seizures in Europe),¹⁷ although smuggling through the Central Asian States of the Commonwealth of Independent States is becoming popular. Opening borders between East and West in Europe facilitated contacts and communication which were also used by drug traffickers, increasing the number of transit routes for drugs and the markets for drug consumption.⁸

31. In the present state of knowledge, it seems that, in contrast to illicit plant-based drugs, trafficking of clandestinely manufactured synthetic drugs is more of an intraregional activity, with interregional trafficking limited to precursors for the production of such drugs.

^{*}Combined database of UNDCP, ICPO/Interpol and WCO.

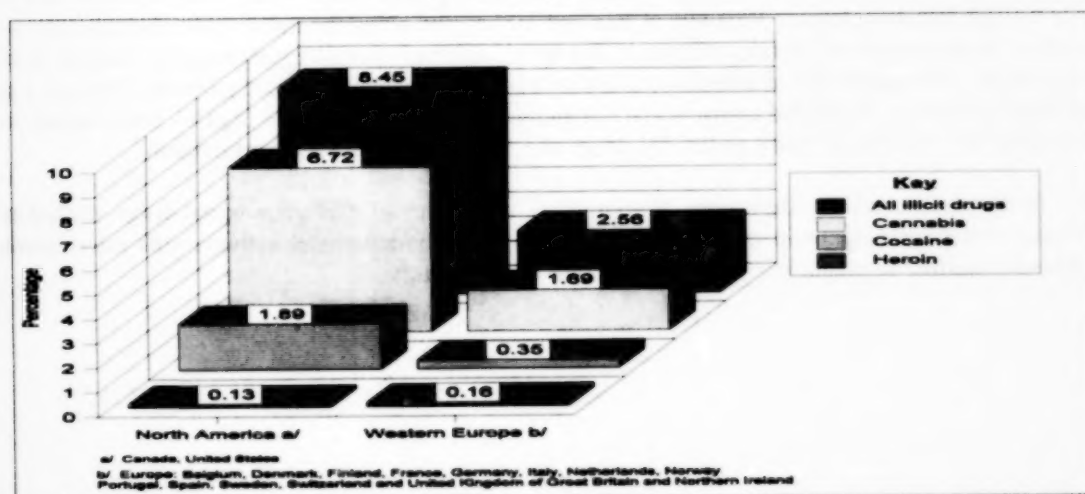
C. Consumption

33. There is little substantive information gathered on an international basis on the extent of illicit drug consumption. That is not necessarily attributable to data collection systems. Methodologically sound surveys of the incidence, prevalence and frequency of illicit drug use are primarily local studies. At the national level, they are few and far between, and in international terms, they are at an early stage of development. That is primarily due to the fact that national systems for estimating consumption are heterogeneous, and the results are therefore not always comparable.¹⁰

34. Some general assessment is nonetheless possible. Global illicit drug use clearly increased in the 1980s and 1990s, and this upward trend is likely to continue for some time yet. In particular, eastern Europe and the countries of the CIS are noting increased usage; so, also, is Africa, as well as many parts of Asia, some parts of Latin America and western Europe. Consumption of illicit drugs looks like becoming a global phenomenon, no more confined to the status of a demand problem in industrialized countries. The traditional distinction between supplier and consumer countries is breaking down. The developing countries that produced, but tended not to consume, illicit drugs, are showing increased domestic consumption, often of more modern rather than traditional drugs: bazuco in Peru, Bolivia and Colombia; and heroin in Myanmar, Pakistan and Thailand.

35. The largest single consumer of illicit drugs in the world, however, still seems to be the United States, with some 11.4 million current drug abusers (1992).¹² Europe follows in second place. In figure VII, drug abuse in North America is compared with drug abuse in western Europe. An attempt is made to establish some orders of magnitude, but the figure should be treated with all the reservations required when dealing with an enormously heterogeneous and fragmented set of data. Leaving the heavy consumption of cannabis in the United States apart, the data in figure VII shows very clearly that the drug problem in the United States is largely one of cocaine abuse. Even reports of fast rises in heroin consumption in the United States since 1992/93 - which is not yet reflected in the data below - will not change the picture substantially. The abuse of cocaine (crack) in the United States is much more common than in Europe, although cocaine also seems to have emerged in Europe as the most widely abused illicit plant-based drug after cannabis. Heroin abuse seems to be marginally higher in Europe than in the United States.

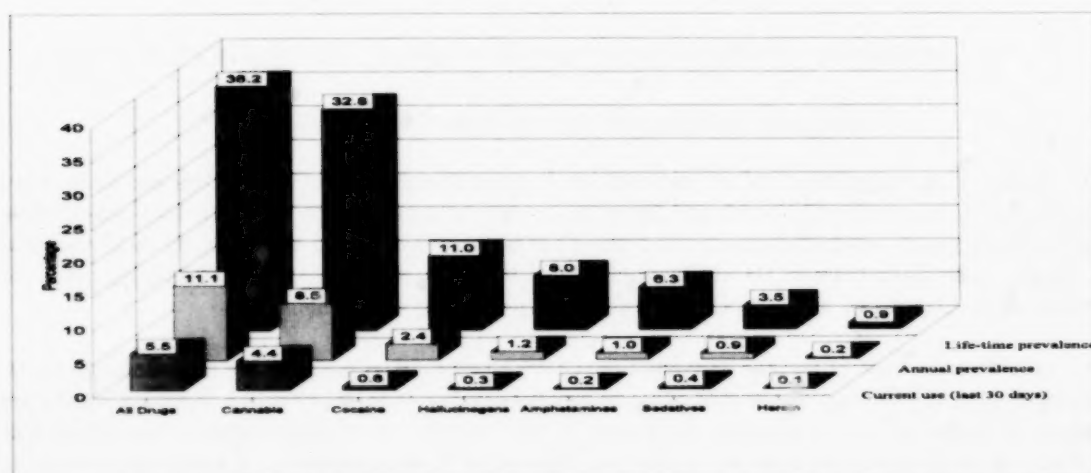
Figure VII. Annual prevalence of illicit drug abuse
(Percentage of total population, 1991/92)



Sources: UNDCP country profiles, National Household Survey 1992 (Washington, D.C., Department of Commerce, 1992) and annual reports questionnaires.

35. Although some countries in East Asia (such as the Philippines and Japan), as well as a large number of countries in Latin America, report already alarming levels of abuse of clandestinely manufactured synthetic drugs, most illicit consumption of synthetic drugs still seems to take place in developed countries. In many developed countries in Europe and in Australia and the United States, the prevalence of abuse of synthetic drugs (including hallucinogens, amphetamines and sedatives diverted from licit trade) is already higher than that of heroin and cocaine combined. The example of the United States given in figure VIII shows that such is the case for both life-time prevalence, annual prevalence and current use.

Figure VIII. Prevalence of illicit drug abuse in the United States
(Percentage of population > 12 years (1992))



Sources: National Household Survey 1992 (Washington, D.C., Department of Commerce, 1992) and annual reports questionnaires.

36. In addition to magnitudes of consumption, some general, and very tentative, assessments about characteristics of abusers are possible. Illicit drug abuse is centred among men, although it is reported to be increasing among women. In general, however, women seem to gravitate towards the abuse of legal, socially acceptable substances and prescription drugs. The results of many studies indicate that the abuse of licit drugs is in fact more common among women than men.¹⁸

37. Although illicit drug abuse prevails among all age groups, it is most frequent among young adults. Most abusers are in the 15-to-35 age group, though there is a concentration within the 18-to-25 age group. The employed have significantly lower rates of drug abuse than do students and unemployed persons of the same age. Married people are less likely to abuse drugs than are single, separated or divorced persons. Prison populations show a high incidence of drug abuse.

38. In general, member States report, in the annual reports questionnaire, that drug abuse is stronger in urban settings. Many also report the emergence of a frontier abuse pattern (Chile, China, Ecuador, India, Mexico, Pakistan, Thailand etc.). Rural drug abuse is associated with traditional consumption (opium in Asia, coca leaves in Latin America) and older abusers. In Asia, addiction rates are highly correlated with access to opium production and trafficking areas; in Latin America, that is far less the case with cocaine.⁷

39. Cannabis appears to be abused by people from all social classes. In developing countries, traditional abuse of opiates appears common among the very poor. By contrast, abuse among college students is positively related to family income.¹⁹ Opium and heroin consumption in middle- to high-income countries in South-West and South-East Asia is often associated with the lower income groups. In least developed countries (such as Myanmar) heroin consumption seems to be more strongly correlated to abusers coming from a wealthy urban background with better education (almost half of all students at Rangoon University are reported to have experimented with heroin), while opium abusers are from rural low-income groups. For cocaine in Latin America, the picture is even less clear. Cocaine appears to be abused, in some countries, by people from all social classes (Argentina, Bahamas and Venezuela), while in others it is primarily abused by those of high socio-economic status (Bolivia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Peru and Uruguay).²⁰ Amphetamines appear, in general, to be frequently abused by the middle and upper classes.

II. ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF DRUG ABUSE AND TRAFFICKING

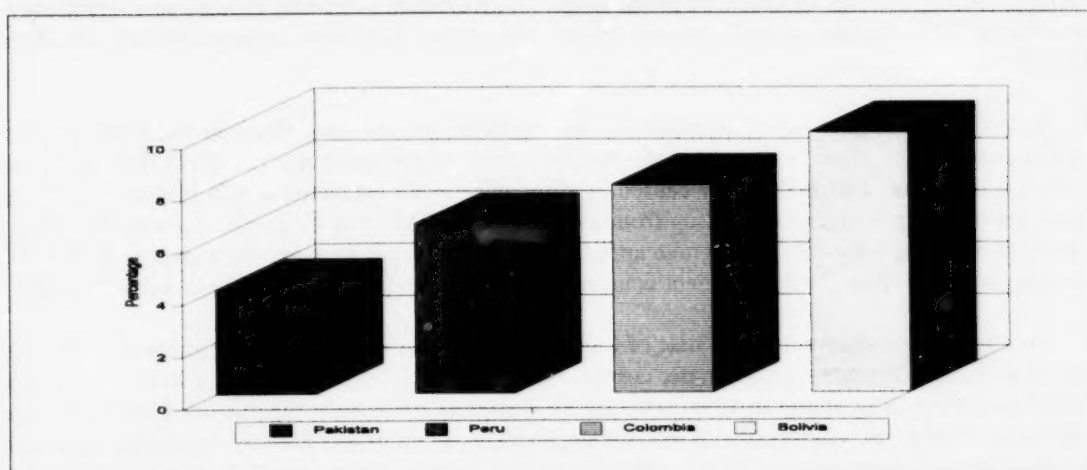
A. Costs and apparent "benefits" of drug abuse and trafficking

40. While the apparent "benefits" of consumption for drug abusers tend to be transient and are quickly superseded by a considerable health and financial burden on society, there are doubtless considerable profits for suppliers and traffickers of illicit drugs - a fact that is revealed so clearly by their readiness to operate in the illicit markets. It will be argued later, however, that producer and trafficking countries tend to pay a high social and political price for short-term economic gains.

41. Although the bulk of income generated out of drug purchases remains in the consumer countries, the small share of less than 10 per cent going to producer countries is large enough to have a significant impact on some of their economies. Estimates of the "benefits" of the operations of the illicit drug industry to the economy of Bolivia suggest that they might have amounted to a gross value added of \$0.7 billion, equivalent to 15 per cent of GDP (1989)²¹ according to Government sources, with some other estimates for the late 1980s showing even higher figures.* Of this, roughly \$280 million was retained by factors of production in Bolivia. Therefore, the actual contribution of the industry to the economy, according to United States sources, was an estimated 6 per cent of GDP. With coca prices falling and the overall Bolivian economy expanding, the annual "benefits" seem, however, to have fallen back to \$120 million by 1993, equivalent to just 2 per cent of GDP.²² Magnitudes similar to those of Bolivia in the late 1980s would appear to apply to Afghanistan, which is one of the world's largest opium-producing countries. The estimated "benefits" of the illicit drug industry in Peru, the world's largest coca producer, although higher in absolute terms than in the case of Bolivia, seem to be lower in relative terms, ranging from 2 to 11 per cent of GDP (1988).²³ With far lower coca production, but much more processing and trafficking, the "benefits" of the coca economy in Colombia are estimated to range from 3 to 13 per cent of GDP (1991).⁷ In the case of Pakistan, the illicit opiate industry appears to have a lesser magnitude, accounting for a value added equivalent of some 4 per cent of GDP (see figure IX).¹³

*According to other sources, the size of the illicit drug industry in Bolivia is thought to have reached \$1.4 billion, that is, almost 30 per cent of gross domestic product in 1987, and fluctuated around 20 per cent in the following years. See UDAPE, Bolivia, *Estrategía de Desarrollo Alternativo* (1990, quoted in Beatriz Cristina Muriel Hernández, "Aspectos reales y monetarios de la economía de la coca, una aproximación a la teoría de la enfermedad holandesa", thesis submitted at the Catholic University of Bolivia, La Paz (1994), p. 1.

Figure IX. Apparent "benefits" of illicit drug industry
(Income generation in per cent of gross domestic product)



Sources: UNDCP and UNRISD

42. Many of the apparently beneficial economic effects resulting from production and trafficking of illicit drugs are, however, not quite as advantageous to the countries concerned as might *prima facie* appear. A number of producer countries have started to suffer from what is generally known as "Dutch Disease",* resulting in stagnation or even contraction of other, non-drug-related sectors, making their economies even more dependent upon just one illicit commodity. Especially in those areas and countries (such as Bolivia or Peru) where no vertically integrated illicit drug industry has been built, drug traffickers show up at irregular intervals to buy the farmers' illicit drug crops, thus frequently creating boom and bust cycles in the local economies.⁷

43. Few comprehensive and internationally comparative studies have been undertaken to measure the costs of drug abuse to society.²⁴ Although figures differ from country to country, depending upon methodology and political orientation, magnitudes can only be assessed by highlighting some of them.

44. The costs of drug abuse (including both licit and illicit substances) have been calculated to be equivalent to 4.6 per cent of GDP in Australia (1992), with illicit drug abuse accounting for 0.5 per cent of GDP.¹⁹ Similarly, an investigation conducted in the United Kingdom and commissioned by the European Community found that identifiable costs of drug trafficking and abuse amounted to 1.8 billion pounds sterling (£)²⁵ in the United Kingdom in 1988, equivalent to some 0.5 per cent of GDP. Of that amount, about 85 per cent was the value of stolen property, clearly identifying crime as the most important side-effect of drug abuse. Other major cost categories were the value of drug law enforcement and legal costs (8.9 per cent), prison costs (4.9 per cent) and government prevention, care and

*"Dutch Disease" implies market distortion, as a result of an extraordinary boom of one isolated sector, and consequent stagnation in core sectors of the economy, as experienced by the Netherlands in connection with large North Sea oil and gas exports in the late 1970s. In the classic scenario, the unexpected boom of one sector of the economy (such as illicit drug production) leads to an increase in the real exchange rate, thus preventing diversification of the economy, endangering the operations of export-oriented and import-substituting industries. For a detailed analysis using the Bolivian example, see Beatriz Cristina Muriel Hernández, "Aspectos reales y monetarios ...".

rehabilitation costs including treatment of patients with drug-related human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) or AIDS (1.8 per cent). Not included in those calculations were the costs of premature mortality, loss of earnings and reduced productivity. With estimates of some 130,000 to 150,000 hard-core abusers, the average annual costs to society per addict were thus around £13,000, or about \$23,100.*

45. According to another set of calculations, the economic cost of drug abuse in the United States, including emergency room visits and other medical costs, higher incidence of HIV/AIDS, increased criminal activity and lost productivity caused by drug abuse were estimated at \$76 billion in 1991, or approximately 1.3 per cent of GDP,²⁶ up from \$44 billion in 1985. The economic costs of drug abuse in the United States were thus on average approximately \$6,670 per year per drug abuser, or \$28,100 per year per heavy drug abuser (frequent consumers of heroin and cocaine of once a week or more).

46. Another study carried out in the State of California found that alcohol and drug abusers, in the year prior to entering a treatment programme, cost the tax payer \$3.1 billion per year, that is, on average \$22,800 per heavy drug abuser in 1991²⁷ (the figure is slightly lower than the one cited above because of the lower average per capita costs of alcohol abuse). The figure of \$22,800 can be broken down into the following cost components: 55 per cent for criminal justice system costs; 26 per cent for stolen property losses; 17 per cent for health and productivity losses to victims of drug-related crime; 17 per cent for costs of health care for the drug abuser; and 8 per cent for welfare and disability payments. If lost earnings are included (drug abusers earned, on average, 60 per cent less than expected earnings for their age and gender), the losses to society amount to \$4.4 billion, or \$32,200 per drug and alcohol abuser. Assuming that wages reflect net productivity, this means that almost half of the losses to society are due to the inability of the drug addict to earn a decent income.** Although the health care costs, at \$3,200 per person, are a rather small component of overall costs to tax-paying citizens or to society at large, it is worth noting that average annual health expenditures for similar gender and age groups in the United States population average about \$1,800, suggesting that the health bill of drug abusers is almost 80 per cent higher than that of an average citizen in the same age group.

B. Work, employment and productivity

1. Influence of drugs on productivity

47. Drug abuse seems to occur most frequently among young people in the 15-to-35 age group, with a particular concentration in the 18-to-25 age group. It thus includes those who have entered or who are just about to enter the workforce. Given high unemployment rates in many countries, entry into the workforce is often a major problem. Consumption of illicit drugs limits chances to enter or remain in

*Converted at the 1988 average exchange rate of: 0.562 pounds sterling = \$1.

**This is based upon the somewhat controversial assumption that jobs necessitating higher qualifications cannot be filled because of widespread substance abuse in society. With the number of drug abusers still below 5 per cent in most countries and unemployment often over 5 per cent, there is generally no shortage of workers, but a shortage of jobs. More generally, if there is high unemployment, the productivity loss as a result of substance abuse by any individual may be insignificant, because the prematurely "retired" or deceased can be replaced by workers who otherwise would be unemployed. For a more detailed discussion, see D. J. Collins, H. M. Lapsely, "Issues and alternatives in the development of a drug abuse estimation model", paper presented at the International Symposium on the Economic and Social Costs of Substance Abuse, held at Banff, Alberta, Canada, in May 1994, p. 12.

the workforce, while frustration from failure to find adequate employment favours drug consumption, creating a vicious circle.

48. The 1993 national household survey carried out in Colombia, for instance, showed that the annual prevalence of illicit drug abuse was highest among those who had no work (4.1 per cent), while it was three quarters less for workers (1.1 per cent). For cocaine specifically, the prevalence rates were 4.1 per cent for the unemployed, and only one tenth of that (0.4 per cent) for the employed.²⁸

49. A study carried out more than a decade ago in California, but probably still valid today, found that "disruptive use of all drugs was significantly correlated with ... loss of job during the past four years, loss of job in the past six months, increased trouble with job, increased vandalism at work, and increased seeking of ... advice ... for a work problem".²⁹

50. A more recent study carried out by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the European Community, which examined drugs and alcohol in the workplace in European countries, found that more than half of the interviewed employers' associations, enterprises and workers' organizations reported specific performance impairments and absences from work as a result of drug- and alcohol-related problems. In about two out of five cases, organizations saw themselves forced to dismiss employees for drug- and alcohol-related reasons, clearly showing the severity of the problem.³⁰ A study involving 2,000 members of the workforce in Alberta, Canada, found that 1 in 16 reported using drugs, mainly marijuana, in the past 12 months.³¹

51. A study on the relationship between drug abuse and job performance in the United States Postal Service confirmed that pre-employment drug-taking correlates positively with absenteeism and involuntary separation. It concluded that by introducing pre-employment drug testing for new applicants, the Postal Service could reduce absenteeism to the general level of non-drug-users, and save some \$100 million over a three-year period.³²

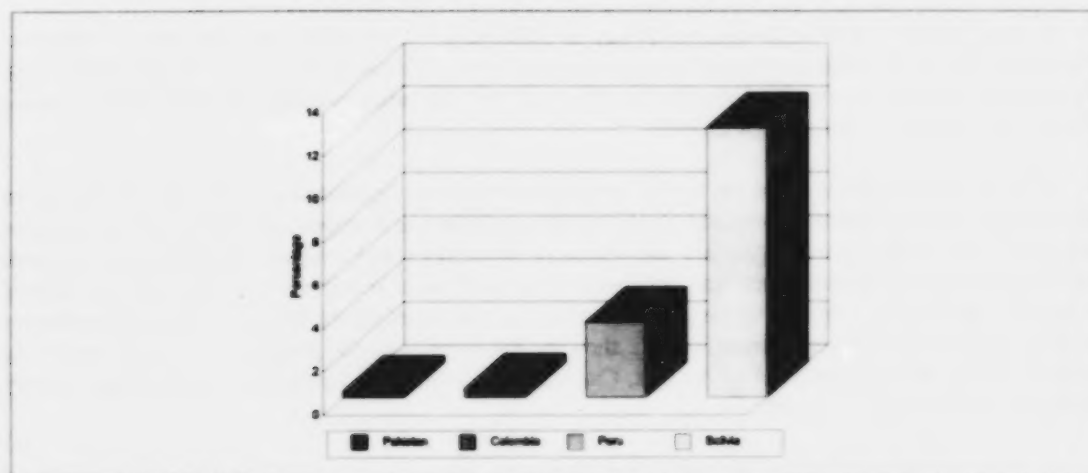
52. In general, the effect of drugs on productivity is a function of the type and quantities of drugs consumed, as well as of the performance requirements of the jobs in question. Tasks that require higher-level judgement, constant attention, immediate memory and fine motor skills are obviously more easily disrupted by drugs than mere physical labour. The more developed a society, with more jobs of the above-mentioned type, the more vulnerable it becomes to drug abuse. At the same time, societies - irrespective of their current level of development - will find it extremely difficult to advance if they have to rely on a workforce that is impaired by large-scale drug abuse. It should also be emphasized that the less the chances for drug abusers working in a legal field, the more likely they are to move into illegal activities, including drug trafficking, and their reintegration into society will become more difficult.

2. Generation of employment

53. While illicit drug abuse affects labour markets by reducing productivity, it also generates some employment in the drug-producing countries, although this is less than generally believed. Employment generated by opium production covers less than 1 per cent of the labour force in Pakistan.¹³ It is only in the two major opium-producing countries, Afghanistan and Myanmar, that the share might be expected to be higher. Information available on coca suggests that the share is small in Colombia (0.4 per cent of the economically active population), rather high in Peru, and particularly high in Bolivia. In Peru, between 2.4 and 4.5 per cent of the economically active population is involved in activities related to the coca industry.⁷ In Bolivia, estimates range from 120,000³³ up to 463,000 people, if the thousands of people involved at least once a year in harvesting, transporting and distributing the coca paste are included.³⁴ One source estimates 150,000 (8.2 per cent of the economically active population

in 1990) and another estimates 300,000 people (16.7 per cent of the economically active population in 1990) to be directly involved in the coca industry,* of which some 85 per cent work on the cultivation of coca leaves, 13 per cent on processing them, and only 2 per cent on trafficking them (see figure X).

Figure X. Illicit drug industry as "employer"
(Percentage of economically active population)



Sources: UNDCP and UNRISD

54. The employment-generating effect of the drug industry has been best demonstrated in Bolivia. Computer simulation models suggest that a 10 per cent increase in coca and cocaine production in Bolivia increases GNP by 2 per cent and lowers unemployment by about 6 per cent.⁵³ Thus, the five peasant federations representing coca-producing farmers have become one of the strongest political pressure groups in the country, and advocate legalizing coca production and preventing currently licit coca production from being declared illicit.⁶ Some jobs are also created in industries supplying the coca and cocaine producers, including industries that supply precursors. In the mid-1980s, more than half of total national toilet-paper production was used in the Chapare area as a filtering agent in coca paste and cocaine processing, and provided jobs for some 2,000 people, who produced, transported and sold it.⁶

55. Trafficking, especially on the retail side, also tends to be labour-intensive. Furthermore, and somewhat paradoxically, the drug problem also generates employment in the enforcement, health and social service sectors. Such employment is unproductive, in so far as it would not be necessary if the drug problem did not exist in the first place.

56. The existence of illicit drug money, and the need to launder it, militates against rational and optimal resource allocation in a market system. Drug money is invested in areas where the origin of funds can be best disguised, often favouring precisely those sectors of an economy that are characterized by low productivity, thus creating new, unproductive jobs, or preventing such jobs from disappearing. There are, however, contrary examples. The land counter-reform in Colombia, where drug capitalists bought up land (as in the Middle Magdalena Valley), led to a massive concentration of ownership and

*Estimates cited in Tullis,⁷ p. 197.

the introduction of new labour-saving technologies, actually reducing the workforce and prompting people to either migrate to coca farming areas or join guerilla groups.⁷

C. Prices and income

1. Determinants

57. In contrast to other commodities, prices of illicit drugs primarily reflect the perceived level of risk. Prices and profits in the illicit drug industry are not proportional to factor costs, but seem to be proportionately related to the risks and the degree of monopoly at each stage of production and marketing.⁷ Heroin and cocaine prices in Europe through the 1980s and early 1990s have shown a surprisingly strong correlation and behaviour in tandem, suggesting that perceived risks (probably due to the degree of success or failure of law enforcement) were indeed the major factor determining the prices,¹⁴ with price changes of the drugs in supplier countries having had only minor influence on retail prices in Europe (see figures XI, XII, XIII and XVI).

58. Given such market structures, some authors conclude that profit margins are not directly related to input factor costs. Thus, a price increase in the early stages of the chain (due, for instance, to crop eradication) would only marginally increase final retail values, and would not lead to the cumulative price hikes that might be expected if fixed percentage mark-ups were the common form. This suggests that law enforcement efforts are most productive at the final stages of the chain, close to the consumer.¹⁵ The proposition, however, is still open to debate and further research.

2. Price elasticity

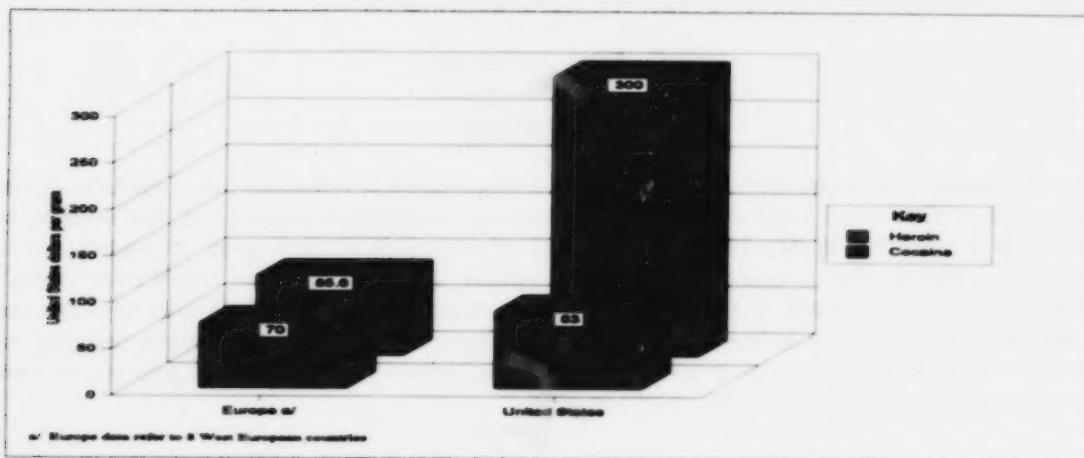
59. The price elasticity of illicit drugs is a crucial issue, not merely for assessing the economic consequences of drug abuse, but also for assessing the impact of interdiction efforts, many of which are based on the assumption that higher prices will reduce consumption.

60. The question, then, is whether the consumption of illicit drugs - like that of most other goods and services - decreases in response to rising prices and increases in response to falling prices. Most studies suggest that price elasticities may be small, but they do exist,³⁶ even though the addition of another variable, such as a successful preventive education campaign, may reduce demand and thereby cause prices to fall, without the falling prices resulting - as might be expected - in more consumption. This seems to have been the case with marijuana and cocaine in the United States during the second half of the 1980s and the early 1990s.¹²

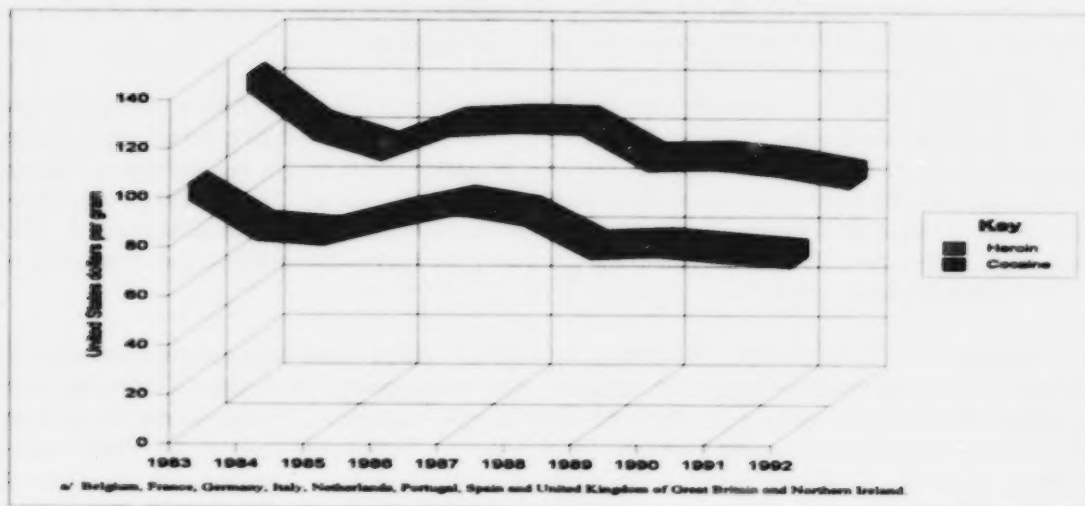
61. There appear to be only a few illicit drug price elasticity studies which have tried to systematically eliminate the several other variables that influence drug consumption. A frequently cited study on marijuana, dating back to the early 1970s in the United States, suggests that marijuana may be strongly price-elastic, with elasticity ranging between -1.0 and -1.5.³⁷ Another old study in the United States estimated elasticities for heroin to be in the range of -0.21 to -0.38.³⁸ This suggests that demand becomes progressively less elastic, or more inelastic, as the addictive nature of the substance increases.

62. Those results are in contrast to another study which argued, in the mid-1980s, that given that average expenditures on marijuana were a small proportion of disposable income, demand for marijuana was close to inelastic at existing price levels (0-0.5 per cent). Only a massive increase in prices could be expected to have a significant impact upon demand levels. Demand for cocaine by contrast, although less elastic in the short run, was assumed to become moderately elastic in the long run. That result

Figure XI. Average retail prices in 1992

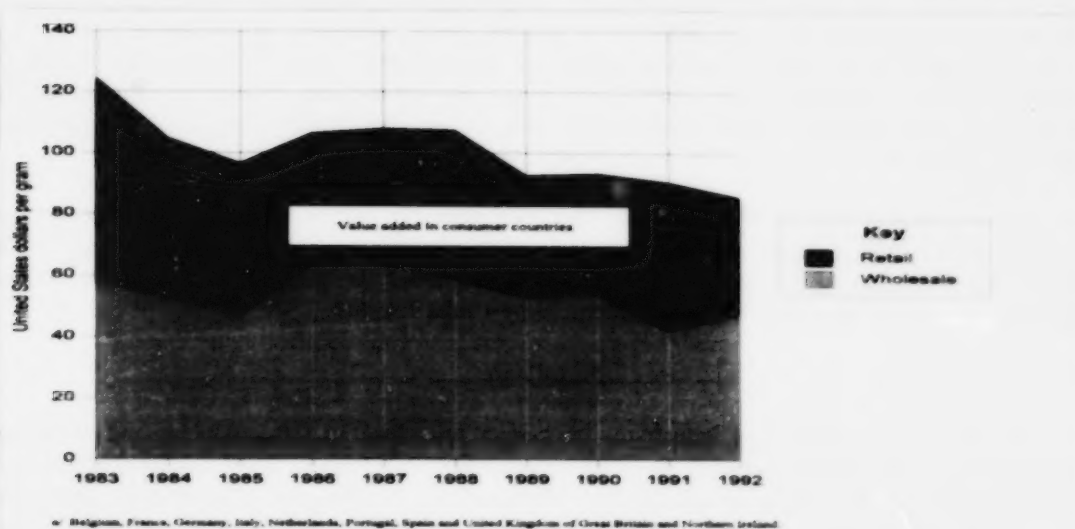


Source: Annual reports questionnaires

Figure XII. Retail prices in Europe
(Average of eight western European countries)^{a/}

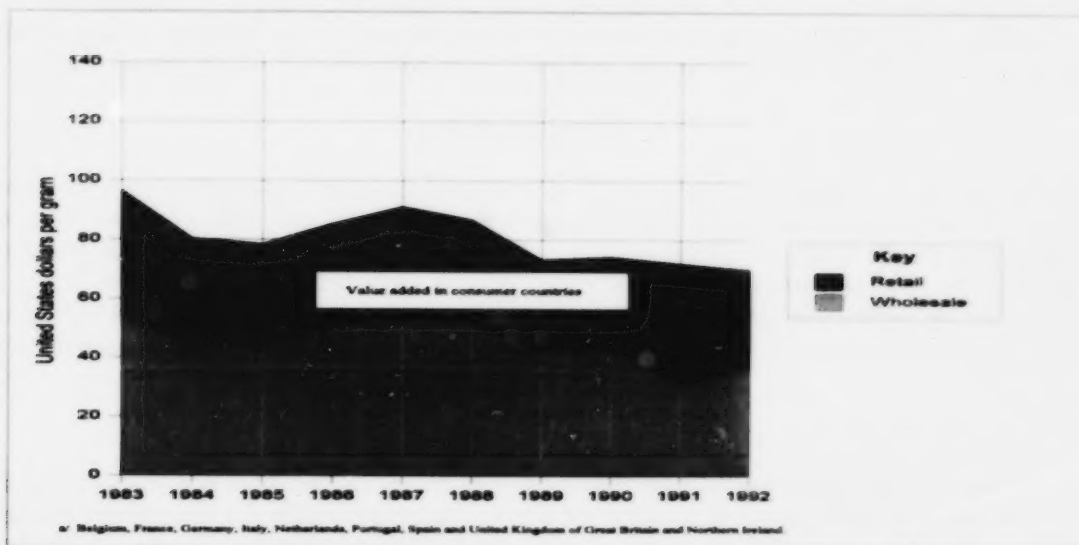
Sources: UNDCP estimates and annual reports questionnaires

Figure XIII. Heroin prices in Europe
(Average of eight western European countries)^{a/}



Sources: UNDCP estimates and annual reports questionnaires

Figure XIV. Cocaine prices in Europe
(Average of eight western European countries)^{a/}



Source: UNDCP estimates and annual reports questionnaires

would be in line with the Becker and Murphy model of "rational addiction" (1988), which predicts that demand for illicit drugs, while inelastic in the short term, can be expected to become more elastic in the long term.* That seems plausible because higher prices may deter potential new entrants to the market, but may not immediately affect the behaviour of persons already addicted. In the case of heroin, since it tends to take a large share of the total budget of regular users - some of whom have to remain criminally active to maintain their consumption levels, but are not able to expand criminal activity indefinitely - price increases might lead to almost proportional reductions in their intake, suggesting a high price elasticity of close to -1 for heavy heroin users."

63. In cases such as that of Pakistan, where the price of heroin on the domestic market is very low compared to developed countries, calculated price elasticities are not statistically significant.¹³ The reason, again, appears to be that the low prices of illicit drugs (heroin in the present case) do not represent any serious monetary barrier for potential new drug recruits.

3. Inflation

64. The impact of the illicit drug industry on the general price level in both producing and consuming countries tends to be neutral, although there are some exceptions. Reports from Afghanistan and from Bolivia suggest that real costs of foodstuff have increased as a consequence of more drug cultivation, with people unwilling or unable to integrate into the coca or opium poppy economy facing further impoverishment.⁷

65. A frequent scenario in producer countries is that drug income is either deposited abroad or used for legal and illegal luxury imports, which does not affect the local price level. If the drug industry has an impact, it is rather on dampening inflationary pressures, as drug abusers are left with less money to spend on their daily subsistence needs. The major exception to this is real estate, which often tends to be a prime target of the beneficiaries of the drug industry, leading to rapidly rising real estate prices, and crowding out other sections of the population. That, for instance, seems to be currently the case in Myanmar. In Colombia, the massive amount of money "earned" by the Medellín group was also largely invested in land, thereby driving up land prices from about \$500 to \$2,000 per hectare.⁹

4. Income distribution

66. The question of income correlates strongly with the production and consumption patterns of illicit drugs. As noted above, the largest incomes generated in the illicit drug industry come from the distribution networks in the developed countries. Concrete evidence from Pakistan¹³ and anecdotal evidence from other producer countries with some domestic consumption suggest that the impact of illicit drugs on income distribution is U-shaped, or, more precisely, in the form of a reversed J curve.^{**} In many countries, the lowest income groups show a higher than average consumption of

*Other deduced hypotheses from the Becker-Murphy model are that the long-run price elasticity as well as the ratio of the long-run to the short-run price elasticity is higher for those with a stronger addiction. See G. Becker and K. Murphy, "A theory of rational addiction", Journal of Political Economy, No. 96 (1988), pp. 675-700.

**In Pakistan almost half (48 per cent) of all drug users were amongst the poorest quintile (20 per cent) of the population. The second income quintile accounted for 21 per cent, the third quintile for 15 per cent, the fourth quintile for 4 per cent and the richest quintile for 12 per cent of all drug users. See "The illicit opiate industry of Pakistan ...".

drugs. Among the middle classes, illicit drug consumption tends to be below average, but rises again among the higher income groups, although remaining below that of the lower income groups. Sociological explanations of that phenomenon usually derive from generic arguments about the frustrations of poverty and the boredom of affluence. Given the hierarchical structure of the illicit drug industry, the largest profits are concentrated among a rather small number of people. Indeed, drug farmers often operate under rather competitive market conditions and thus earn relatively little. The number of participants declines, and profits increase, along each stage of the refining or preparation process, until, at the top or wholesale level, a few sellers control most of the industry.⁷ Both consumption and production thus tend to increase existing income disparities in society.* Such disparities, perhaps more than poverty by itself, are often considered to be a precondition for drug abuse, creating something of a vicious circle.

D. Trade and balance of payments

67. The implications of the illicit drug industry on the balance of trade and of payments of a producer country, if viewed in static terms, tends to be positive. Drug exports generate much-needed foreign exchange. One source estimated the value of the coca and cocaine exports of Bolivia to be between \$0.4 billion and \$0.6 billion in 1990.⁷ Given total legal exports worth \$0.92 billion in 1990,⁴⁰ this would mean that coca and cocaine exports were equivalent to half the size of total legal exports.⁷ More recently, however, the share of illicit drugs, as a proportion of both GDP and total exports, appears to have declined.²² Illicit drug exports from Pakistan are estimated to have been around \$1.5 billion (1992), of which heroin is thought to have accounted for about \$1.3 billion.¹³ However, given the much larger economy of Pakistan and exports of \$7.3 billion in 1992, the overall importance, at about a fifth of total exports, was much less.

68. During transition periods under conditions of structural adjustment, inflows of foreign exchange from drug exports have - in the short run - beneficial effects on the economies concerned, mitigating some of the hardship associated with structural adjustment programmes. In Bolivia, for example, the export-oriented coca and cocaine industry managed to absorb much of the large labour force that lost jobs as a result of a structural adjustment programme that led to a closing down of the unproductive mining sector.⁶ Foreign exchange inflows from illicit drug exports may, however, maintain inflationary expectations, and eventually prevent nominal interest rates from falling, thus forcing the Government to prolong the initial and most difficult phase of structural reform, and leading to some crowding-out of the legitimate business sector.⁴¹

69. Apart from the capital inflows that result from drug exports, outright capital inflows of drug profits generated elsewhere also play an important role in a number of countries. Such drug funds, however, tend to be extremely volatile, reacting quickly to changes in the political and judicial environment, thus making Governments de facto hostage to international drug money. Such criminal financial flows often turn out to be beyond the traditional macroeconomic control instruments of government. With illicit

*Similarly, the UNRISD and United Nations University studies also concluded that "Any GNP, foreign exchange, or investment increases for the national economy that derive from the illegal drug trade must be interpreted in light of their tendencies to concentrate income and wealth ..." (see Tullis, p. 170);⁷ and "The astonishing upshot ... is that far from destabilizing the old social order that legitimated a highly skewed distribution of wealth and property, the drug trade has reinforced it. The cocaine barons have become the new rich, simply replacing the old coffee oligarchy that evolved in the late nineteenth century" (see Tullis, p. 180).⁷

drug funds available, money demand will be much less responsive to interest rate changes than would otherwise be the case.

70. When considered in dynamic terms, the long-term negative effects of the illicit drug industry seem to be clear. Countries operating under conditions of flexible exchange rates will see themselves confronted with overvalued exchange rates, often running large licit trade deficits, and will forego the chance to develop profitable alternative export industries,⁶ even further increasing their dependence on illicit drug exports over time ("Dutch Disease"). In the case of Bolivia, the overvalued exchange rate resulting from the influx of dollars generated by drug trafficking, for instance, prevented the local leather and textile industries from developing in the face of cheap imports from Brazil and Chile.⁷ For countries operating under some kind of fixed exchange rate arrangement, the problem is that otherwise necessary realignments will be delayed. For countries operating under a fixed exchange rate regime with an already adequately pegged currency, the consequences are likely to be a rising domestic inflation rate, unless offset by capital flight.

E. Finance and investment

1. Funds for laundering

71. The Financial Action Task Force estimated that in the late 1980s, sales of cocaine, heroin and cannabis amounted to approximately \$122 billion per year in the United States and Europe, of which some 70 per cent, or \$85 billion, was considered available for laundering and investment.⁴² United Nations estimates, based on cash flows from international banking and capital account statistics, suggested that up to \$300 billion per year could have been available for laundering in the late 1980s.* Even though that figure might have been on the high side at the time, it has probably been surpassed by now. If it is accepted that the annual total global turnover of the illicit drug industry is about \$500 billion, that is, about 10 times the value of the illicit drug market of the United States (approximately \$50 billion), then some \$350 billion per year is probably available for laundering in the 1990s. Most estimates indeed range between \$300 billion and \$500 billion.**

72. While global illicit drug funds - although far from negligible - are still modest compared with the overall size of the economies of developed countries, they are extremely large if compared with the economies of many developing countries. Even the lowest estimate of \$85 billion would make the drug money for laundering larger than the individual GNPs of three fourths of the 207 economies of the world.⁸ In contrast, taking the highest estimate of \$500 billion, drug money for laundering would be equivalent to about a tenth of the GNP of the United States, or some 3 per cent of the combined GNP of the member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

73. Whatever the actual magnitude, there is little doubt that drug-related criminal finance has already reached significant proportions. One of the most striking examples is Colombia. Hearings conducted by the United States Senate revealed that drug-related revenues in Colombia in the late 1970s were

*However, this figure was qualified as "suspect" (probably too high) by the Intergovernmental Expert Group to Study the Economic and Social Consequences of Illicit Traffic in Drugs (see E/CN.7/1991/25, p. 25).

**But since the late 1980s no serious attempt seems to have been made to recalculate and update the figures on money-laundering. In some publications, the overall size of the drug industry is already assumed to be larger and thus also the money available for laundering (see "Present status of knowledge ...",¹⁰ pp. 26-28).

estimated to have been equivalent to almost 20 per cent of domestic money supply.* Between 1975 and 1989, between \$39 billion and \$66 billion (that is, on average \$2.8 billion to \$4.7 billion per year) of drug-related funds are estimated to have flooded into Colombia, which, given the size of the economy of the country, is very large. The total gross private fixed investment of Colombia averaged just \$2.8 billion per year between 1976 and 1986, suggesting that illegal businessmen had the capacity to invest an amount as large as what official data attribute to the whole private sector of the country.⁷

2. Savings

74. Despite the large sums mentioned above, it appears that the impact of the illicit drug industry on domestic savings is minimal in most countries, and perhaps even slightly negative. That is rather surprising, in view of the traditional pattern that the redistribution of income from low- to high-income groups actually increases the overall savings rate. In the case of illicit drugs, the already low savings of the poorest sections of society tend to be used up for drug consumption purposes. Income generated by high-income groups out of the drug business, is not, however, simply deposited in domestic savings accounts, but is laundered, often outside the country concerned, or is used for arms purchases, conspicuous consumption, frequently observed increases in alcohol consumption and rapidly growing expenditure on prostitution.⁷

3. Investment

75. Investment, which in a wider context includes human capital formation, is jeopardized by an illicit drug industry, because resources that could be spent on education and health are wasted on drugs instead.¹³ Even productive investment, in the traditional sense, does not appear to be particularly attractive for drug traffickers. In Colombia, for instance, the Medellín cartel concentrated its investment in real estate and the construction sector.¹⁴ Once the construction boom drew to a close, however, the city of Medellín suffered economic setbacks and high unemployment because little alternative productive investment had been made. In Bolivia, drug money was invested in entertainment, television and radio stations and at least one soccer club, which may have been acquired in order to influence people in favour of traffickers.¹⁵ Moreover, import businesses were opened for money-laundering purposes. Reports from countries such as Canada and the United States, where significant parts of the receipts are also laundered, indicate that investment of drug money is often found in small, cash-rich businesses that have no need to issue large numbers of official bills. Companies controlled by "drug equity" may thus continue to operate, for a prolonged period, as loss-makers, undercutting market prices and distorting competition.

76. Once the level of drug-related violence increases, as has been the case in a number of developing countries where drug mafias concentrate their activities,¹⁶ legitimate enterprises start to liquidate their investments and send their capital abroad. Dirty capital may replace clean capital, but, as noted

*Illegal narcotics profits hearings conducted by the Senate Committee on Governmental Affairs, quoted in Pino Arlacchi, Mafia Business: the Mafia Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism (London, Verso, 1986), p. 22.

**This has been mirrored in rapidly rising real estate prices as well as in the fact that while the official constant value mortgage system declined by about 20 per cent in the late 1980s, the total licensed construction area increased by 14.6 per cent, which means that drug barons did not have to go to the banks to solicit construction loans. See Tullis,⁷ p. 175.

***In Colombia, there were apparently some 2,000 sicarios (teenage contract killers) in the late 1980s, with the price of killing a person declining to just \$13 on average. See Tullis,⁷ p. 180.

above, dirty money operates far less productively. The social ethic of many of the new drug capitalists who have legitimated their money has not always been conducive to sustainable economic growth. Efforts to suppress drug trafficking and related violence increase police and military budgets, crowding out government investment in infrastructure, education and health. The illicit drug industry has often been a catalyst for the delegitimation of the State. The environment for direct foreign investment worsens as the security situation deteriorates and the weakening of the judicial system makes the resolution of civil disputes increasingly difficult. Uncertainty promotes an investment focus on short-term profits, compromising long-term growth. Even though the drug problem does not appear, by itself, to be high among the risk factors for foreign investment, it has a significant impact on the risk factors (such as insurgency, terrorism, land disputes, social violence and corruption) rated highest by foreign investors.

77. A special danger, emerging in countries that aim at rapid privatization of State-owned assets (as in most of eastern Europe), is that those assets become a target for criminal finance. This tends to undermine the foundations of the State and of a market economy. The paradox is that privatization takes place in order to increase efficiency, but, if criminally financed, can turn out to be extremely inefficient from a wider long-term economic perspective. Criminal finance often leads to a parasitic, anti-competitive approach to business.⁴¹ The criminal enterprise operates in response to stimuli that may be quite distinct from those of legitimate enterprises. In particular, there is the ability to use intimidation as a kind of non-tariff trade barrier.⁴² Violence may be used to eliminate competition and lead to monopolistic behaviour in price-setting policy. Elimination of rivals will add to the market share and profitability of the aggressor.⁴³ Once the ability to coerce is recognized by local competitors, even expenditure on open violence is no longer necessary. Another competitive advantage is the ability to repress wage rises by discouraging wage-related protest. Finally, access to financial resources for enterprises with dirty equity is facilitated.⁴³ Thus, once established in the business community, firms with criminal ownership have a structural advantage in expanding their market share.

78. Even worse, such developments can subsequently change public perceptions. In Colombia, for example, some reports suggest that as much as 30 per cent of the wealth of the country is already in the hands of drug traffickers. The Cali drug cartel was estimated to have stakes in more than 500 legal businesses, including pharmaceutical companies. Criminal involvement there has led to one crucial yet rarely noted development: the perceptions among some sections of the public have changed in favour of criminal investors, who are seen to bring prosperity to the communities they infiltrate.⁴¹

4. Macroeconomic management

79. With large amounts of illicit drug money invested in an economy, macroeconomic management becomes extremely complicated. It is difficult at the best of times, and with large-scale drug funds circulating in an economy, it becomes an almost impossible task. Particularly when economic policy changes (such as austerity measures to curb inflation and diversify the export base) are necessary, drug funds tend to counteract government actions, either by preventing expectations to adapt, by prolonging the time-frame for macroeconomic stabilization, or by prompting Governments to take drastic measures, thus creating unemployment and social unrest.⁴¹ The UNRISD studies have shown that money from drug trafficking has distorted many national fiscal and monetary policies. With so much extraordinary capital from the drug trade competing with funds from the normal informal economy, drug money has introduced many more macroeconomic distortions than central banks have been able to handle. Macroeconomic impacts have been felt on foreign exchange flows, aggregate demand and inflation, and indeed on economic growth in general.⁷

III. SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF DRUG ABUSE AND TRAFFICKING

A. Family and community

80. There is a vast literature on how the rapid social, economic, and technological changes that are characteristic of the present age influence families and communities. Much of the literature is qualitative and descriptive in nature. While there are doubtless many links between its findings and problems of drug abuse, exploring those links is beyond the ambit of the present report. Many of the issues germane to the relationship between drug abuse and families are summarized in two recent position papers prepared by UNDCP⁸ and WHO,⁴⁵ and the following discussion only points to a few directions for further investigation.

81. Fragmented families appear to be related, in one way or another, to problems of substance abuse. In Mexico, for example, the country study carried out by UNRISD and the United Nations University shows that illicit drug abuse correlates more strongly with disintegration of the family than with poverty.¹⁶ Similarly, the country study carried out by the same bodies on the Lao People's Democratic Republic found that in areas where social controls exercised by the family and the community had broken down, opium and heroin consumption spilled over to young men, women and children, touching as much as 10 per cent of the population.⁴⁶ The Thailand country study in the same series attributes increasing use of heroin and psychotropic substances to urbanization, rapid cultural change and a breakdown in family cohesion.⁴⁷ The relationship could also work the other way, with substance abuse straining family relations and ultimately making families dysfunctional, transforming them from an asset into a burden on society.

82. Although families have a powerful influence on shaping attitudes, values and behavioural patterns of children to prevent substance abuse, peer groups often prove to have an even stronger influence.⁴⁸ The negative influence of peers appears to increase when parents abdicate their traditional supervisory roles. Family factors thought to lead to, or intensify, drug abuse include prolonged or traumatic parental absence, harsh discipline, failure to communicate on an emotional level as well as parental use of drugs. Lack of household stability triggered by low and irregular income and employment conditions may increase the stress on the family and its vulnerability to drug abuse, opening a wide field for possible government action to reduce such vulnerability.

83. While the family itself can be the origin of drug problems, it can also be a potent force for prevention and treatment. Family therapy has gained increased acceptance, with the defining characteristic being the simultaneous involvement of more than one member of the family in therapeutic sessions. Most families are supported and cared for by women. They frequently have the key role in teaching the young, ensuring that health care is provided, and maintaining links with and mobilizing community support when necessary. Recognition and effective utilization of women as resources for drug prevention and treatment can improve efforts to reduce both the supply and demand for drugs.⁴⁹ Indeed, the family unit as a whole has a clear interest in preventing individual family members from falling prey to drug abuse, and thus becomes a potentially powerful ally of government and community prevention programmes.

B. Health

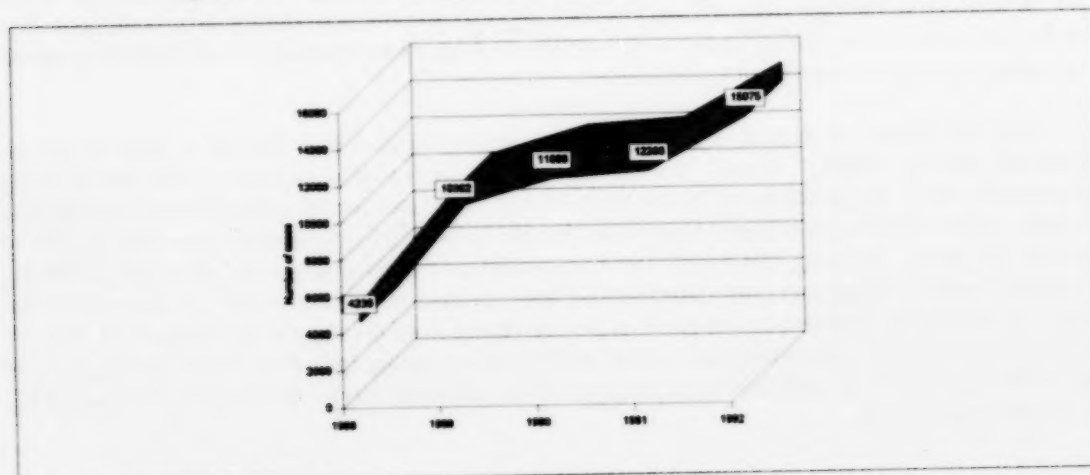
84. The negative impact of drug abuse on health is manifest, scientifically well established, and documented in a vast literature which is beyond the purview of the present report. Table 1 provides a useful summary, showing the toxic effects and addiction risk of the major psychoactive drugs, licit as well as illicit, and the following discussion only emphasizes a few key issues. In the United States alone

drug-related emergency room visits amounted to 434,000 in 1992, up from 404,000 in 1988, clearly demonstrating the magnitude of the drug-related health problem for both the addicts concerned as well as for society at large, which is burdened with the drug-abuse-related health costs.¹²

85. Substances most commonly associated with drug-related deaths are cocaine, heroin and other opiates, barbiturates, amphetamines and amphetamine derivatives. Substances such as benzodiazepines, hallucinogens and cannabis - depending on the dosage - have a negative impact on health, but are usually not directly associated with death, although they may be associated with fatal accidents.

86. Though the mortality risk of illicit drugs is a matter of concern, it should be noted that the existing drug control mechanisms (prevention, education and law enforcement), although not able to prevent substance-abuse-related-mortality (SARM), do seem to have prevented the actual number of SARM cases from reaching the levels that are currently experienced with abuse of licit psychoactive substances. While alcohol and tobacco account for nearly 5 million deaths per year,⁵⁰ estimates of drug-related deaths of injecting drug users (IDUs) amount to 200,000 cases per annum globally. Officially reported cases of SARM are significantly lower, amounting to 15,000 cases globally in 1992 (see figure XV). However, because of the lack of adequate reporting in a large number of countries, there is a bias towards underrepresentation in those figures. Given an estimated global drug injecting population of 5.3 million, the ratio of drug-related death to drug injecting population - using the estimate of 200,000 deaths of IDUs - is some 0.4 per cent.⁵¹ With official United States estimates of the size of the illicit drug-abusing population of 12.4 million during the 1990-1992 period and the number of SARM cases at around 6,000 per year over the same period the drug related mortality rate in the United States actually was at 0.05 per cent. Relating the number of deaths to hard-core abusers (those using drugs at least weekly - some 2.7 million people in the United States in 1991), the drug-related mortality rate amounted to 0.2 per cent of hard-core abusers in the United States. Those figures suggest that while serious health problems of drug abusers are the rule, drug-related death still seems to be the exception.

Figure XV. Global development of substance-abuse-related mortality



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol

Table 1. Toxic effects and addiction risk of major illicit and licit psychoactive substances^{2/}

Drug category	Acute toxicity	Chronic toxicity	Relative risk of addiction
Cocaine, amphetamines	Sympathetic overactivity: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, hyperthermia; acute toxic psychosis: delusions, hallucinations, paranoia, violence, anorexia	Paresthesias, stereotypy, seizures, withdrawal depression, chronic rhinitis, perforation of nasal septum	1
Opiates	Sedation, analgesia, emotional blunting, dream state; nausea, vomiting, spasm of ureter and bile duct; respiratory depression, coma, synergism with alcohol and sedatives; impaired thermoregulation; suppression of sex hormones	Disorders of hypothalamic and pituitary hormone secretion, constipation, withdrawal cramps, diarrhoea, vomiting, gooseflesh, lacrimation and rhinorrhea	2
Hallucinogens (LSD, PCP)	Sympathetic overactivity: visual and auditory illusions, hallucinations, depersonalization; PCP only: muscle rigidity, hyperpyrexia, ataxia, agitation, violence, stereotypy, convulsions	Flashbacks, depression, prolonged psychotic episodes	3
Cannabis (marihuana, hashish)	Psychomotor impairment; synergism with alcohol and sedatives	Apathy and mental slowing, impaired memory and learning (brain damage?), impaired immune response ^{2/}	4
Nicotine	Nausea, tremor, tachycardia; high doses: hypertension, bradycardia, diarrhea, muscle twitching, respiratory paralysis	Coronary, cerebral and peripheral vascular disease, gangrene, gastric acidity, peptic ulcer, withdrawal irritability, impaired attention and concentration, retarded fetal growth, spontaneous abortion ^{2/}	2
Alcohol and related drugs (benzodiazepines, barbiturates)	Psychomotor impairment, impaired thinking and judgement, reckless or violent behaviour; lowering of body temperature, respiratory depression	Hypertension, stroke, hepatitis, cirrhosis, gastritis, pancreatitis, ^{2/} organic brain damage, cognitive deficits, fetal alcohol syndrome, ^{2/} withdrawal effects: shakes, seizures, delirium tremens	3
Caffeine	Cardiac arrhythmias, insomnia, restlessness, excitement, muscle tension, jitteriness, gastric discomfort	Hypertension, anxiety, depression, withdrawal headaches	5

Source: Avram Goldstein and Harold Kalant, "Drug policy: striking the right balance", *Science*, 28 September 1990, p. 1514.

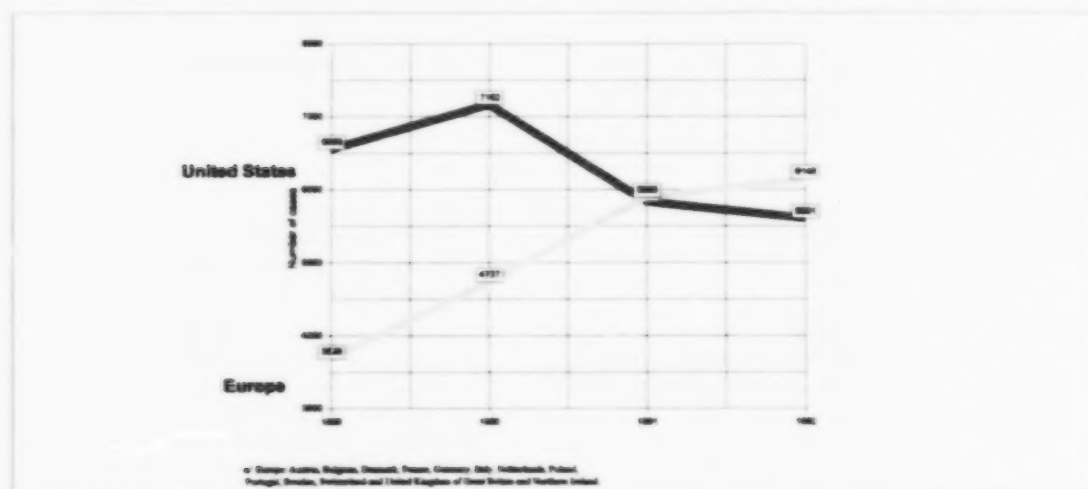
^{2/}Listed here are effects due to the drugs themselves. As the effects are dose-related and subject to individual variation in sensitivity, not all are expected to be seen in every user. Approximate rankings for relative risk of addiction are on a five-point scale, where 1 is most severe.

^{2/}Bronchitis, emphysema, precancerous changes, lung cancer, pulmonary hypertension, and cardiovascular damage by carbon monoxide are consequences of smoking tobacco or marijuana, not due to the respective psychoactive drugs. Inhalation of smoke by non-smokers is also a significant hazard. With equivalent smoking, these chronic toxic effects occur sooner with marijuana than with tobacco.

^{2/}These effects result only from alcohol, not benzodiazepines or barbiturates.

87. The dramatic increase of SARM in recent years (see figure XV), has become a matter of public policy concern. From the mid-1980s to the early 1990s (see figure XVIII in annex II for specific dates and magnitudes), cases of SARM increased by a factor of six in Germany and Spain, and a factor of five in Austria and Italy. They tripled in Belgium, France and Switzerland, increased by more than one half in the United Kingdom, and, in contrast to the rest of Europe, remained stable in the Netherlands. Reports from the Russian Federation suggest that SARM increased by a factor of four, from 484 to 2,036 cases between 1991 and 1992, making it the country with the world's second largest SARM rate, after the United States. In Poland, SARM increased by about 50 per cent between 1989 and 1992. In countries and areas outside Europe, strong increases were reported, for instance, from Hong Kong, Japan and Saudi Arabia. The only country reporting a falling SARM rate between 1989 and 1992, from 6,556 to 5,601 cases, was the United States (see figure XVI).⁵²

Figure XVI. Substance-abuse-related mortality, United States-Europe^{a/} (1989-1992)

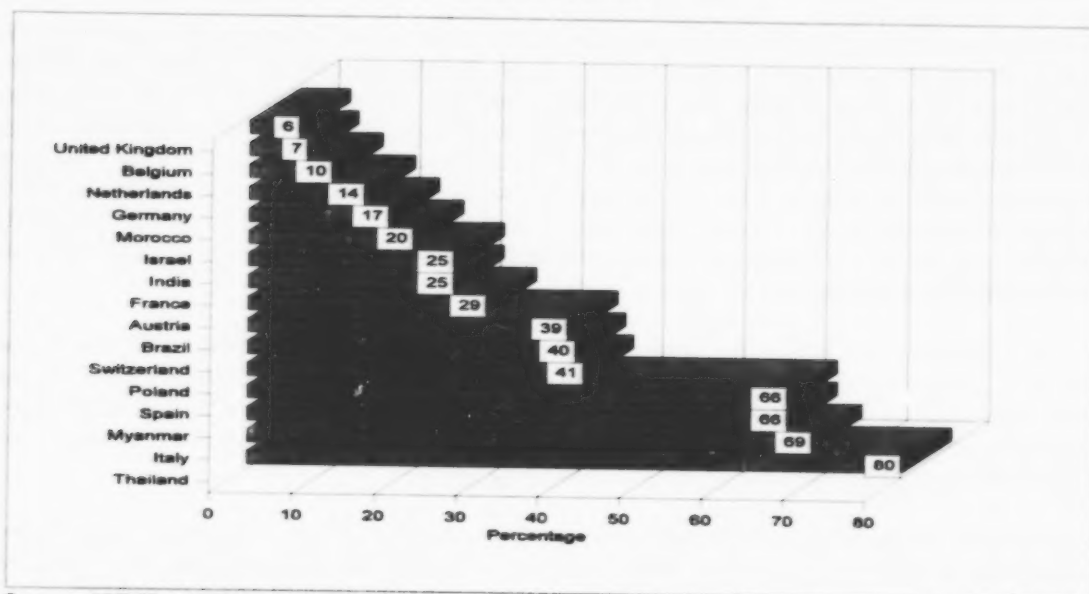


Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol

88. While the health problems affect primarily the concerned drug user and only indirectly affect society at large through a higher health bill, the links between drug addiction, needle-sharing, prostitution, AIDS and other diseases, are even more clearly demonstrable. That creates additional health dangers for society at large. At the global level, some 22 per cent of the world's HIV/AIDS population injects drugs, which is a significantly higher proportion than that of the drug-injecting population in the total population. Reports from individual countries (see figure XVII) suggest that the share of IDUs in the HIV/AIDS population is as high as 80 per cent in Thailand, 69 per cent in Italy, 66 per cent in Myanmar, 66 per cent in Spain, 41 per cent in Poland, 40 per cent in Switzerland, 39 per cent in Brazil, 30 per cent in the United States, and 25 per cent in France and India. Lower shares are reported for countries in Central America, Germany (14 per cent), the Netherlands (10 per cent), China (8 per cent), Sweden (8 per cent) and the United Kingdom (6 per cent).

89. The resulting debate revolves around a variety of medical, ethical and legal questions, one of which concerns balancing policies for reduction and eradication of drug abuse with policies that aim at limiting the spread of diseases (such as HIV/AIDS) that may be associated with drug abusers.⁵³

Figure XVII. Proportion of injecting drug abusers in HIV/AIDS population, selected countries



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol

C. Education

90. Though education and drug abuse often appear to be in a cyclical relationship with each other, it is generally believed that education is an important point of intervention for the prevention of drug abuse.

91. The use of drugs often results in impairment of short-term memory and other mental functions, impaired tracking ability in sensory and perceptual functions, preoccupation with acquiring drugs, adverse emotional and social development of pupils, and thus generally impaired classroom performance. Reduced cognitive efficiency leads to poor academic performance and a resulting decrease in self-esteem, contributing to instability of the individual sense of identity which is, in turn, likely to further contribute to drug consumption, leading to a vicious circle.

92. At the same time, education is one of the principal means of preventing drug abuse. It should be appreciated, however, that preventive education is a process which will only produce results in the long run, in particular when operating in close cooperation with parents. Unfortunately, scientifically validated information on the overall effectiveness, as well as cost-effectiveness, of various approaches, is usually not available.

D. Environment

93. Environmental damage related to illicit drugs is caused in producing countries by clearing of forests, growth and cultivation of plants as monocultures, and processing of harvested plants into drugs, using environmentally dangerous chemicals without taking the necessary precautions. Although environmental damage due to illicit drug production has to some extent been documented, there appears

to have been little effort, so far, to compare illicit drug-related damage with that resulting from licit agriculture and industry.

94. The type of environmental damage found in any one country will depend on the specific role it plays in the operations of the illicit drug industry. In the Andean countries, for example, coca farmers cut down forests on steep hillsides subject to erosion, instead of expanding cultivation of rich alluvial soil on the valley floors.⁵⁴ It is feared that coca cultivation may have resulted in deforestation of 700,000 hectares in the Amazon region in Peru.⁵⁵ An estimated 2 to 6 hectares of forest land are cleared by farmers in Chapare (Bolivia) for each hectare of coca production. This would mean that between 260,000 and 780,000 hectares have been cleared as a result of the boom in coca production, compared with the 250,000 hectares of forest estimated to have been lost annually, in recent years, to timber extraction, colonization and cattle ranching.⁶

95. In South-East Asia, most opium poppy cultivation takes place in the rain forests. The traditional slash and burn system used by the hill tribes has cleared enormous amounts of rain forest in recent years, with much of the cleared land coming under poppy cultivation. Those forests might have otherwise been used much more productively. Slash and burn agriculture, in any case, damages the environment through denudation, top-soil loss and river silting.⁷

96. Similarly, in the tropical and high mountain forest regions of Latin America, opium poppy cultivation is beginning to emerge on fragile land that is isolated and difficult to detect. Given the illegality of cultivation, growers of opium poppy, coca and cannabis often do not put much effort into preserving the soil from erosion or careful treatment of the land. Unlike indigenous farmers, cultivators of drug crops have fewer ties to the land and are less respectful of it. As a consequence, their practices are far more wasteful, depleting the soil without allowing it an opportunity to restore itself. In an effort to raise productivity, illicit cultivators frequently use herbicides and insecticides in larger amounts than normally acceptable. The intense use of pesticides by coca cultivators in the Chapare area has already seriously contaminated the groundwater.⁷

97. Another form of damage to the environment caused by coca and opium results from the improper disposal of toxic wastes created during the processing of the plant material into a form of consumable drug. In Bolivia, some 30,000 tonnes of toxic chemicals, including lime, sodium carbonate, sulphuric acid, kerosene, acetone and hydrochloric acid, used in the processing phases of illicit drugs, ranging from being moderately toxic to extremely destructive for the environment, are flushed down the waterways each year without any proper waste-water treatment. Moreover, some 200,000 tonnes of discarded contaminated coca leaves are left to leach into the soil every year.⁷ In Peru, the extensive use of chemicals to process drugs and the practice of disposing them off by the quickest means possible has been responsible for killing whole species of fish and aquatic plants in the Huallaga river.⁸ According to United States government studies, cocaine processors in the Andean region dump each year some 10 million litres of sulphuric acid, 16 million litres of ethyl ether, 8 million litres of acetone and from 40 to 770 million litres of kerosene (depending on how much is indeed recycled) into the water. The chemical wastes alter water pH, reduce oxygen, and lead to acute poisoning of fish and plants, and even to possible genetic mutations in some species.⁵⁴

98. Finally, the environmental impact of herbicides to eradicate illicit drug cultivation is a cause of concern. What seems to be needed is a balanced assessment of the relative environmental impact of existing cultivation practices, often using damaging agrochemicals, versus a one-time chemical or biological intervention for eradicating the illicit crop in question.

E. Crime, corruption and dangers for civil society

99. Drugs and crime are related in several ways. Illicit production, manufacture, distribution, possession and consumption (although with some exceptions) of illicit drugs constitute criminal offences in most countries, in particular those countries which are signatories to the 1961, 1971 and 1988 Conventions. In the United States, for example, almost 60 per cent of all federal prisoners in 1992 were drug offenders.⁵⁶

100. Drugs increase the likelihood of many kinds of criminal activity. Drug-related crime occurs primarily in the form of trafficking-related criminal activity, including violent conflicts among trafficking groups for increased market share, and also as a result of the need of drug consumers to finance their addiction through theft and prostitution. Long-term trends (based on 1975-1989 data) presented to the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice show that drug-related crime and robbery were the fastest-growing component in overall crime, except kidnapping.⁵⁷

101. Even though research in the United States seems to show that delinquency (in particular involvement in property crime) precedes substance abuse, there is no doubt that property crime further increases once addiction occurs. Review of the literature indicates a strong probability that drug addicts tend to be deeply involved in criminal activities, with daily users of drugs having a severalfold higher rate of criminality than non-drug users.⁵ A study of heroin abusers attending the Liverpool Drug Dependency Unit reported that between 1985 and 1987, 90 per cent financed part of their habit - costing them on average £40 a day - from shoplifting or burglary.⁵⁸ Another study found that almost 50 per cent of the total value of theft in 1993 in England and Wales was drug-related.⁵⁹ A study based on the results of the United States Drug Use Forecasting Programme, testing nearly 3,000 persons charged with serious non-drug related offences, found that about three quarters in New York and Philadelphia, and about two thirds in the District of Colombia,* tested positive for cocaine.

102. Experts found that during periods of curtailed narcotics use produced by treatment, property crime levels are significantly reduced and tend to become low after termination of an addiction career.⁶⁰ Another United States study, based on data from California in the early 1990s, showed that victim and theft losses caused by drug abusers fell, by more than one half, from an average \$9,790 per drug user in the year prior to treatment, to \$4,320 in the year following treatment.²⁷

103. Drug-related crime and violence is high not only in consumer countries, but also in producer countries, with the most striking example being Colombia. With drug cultivation and trafficking booming in Colombia since the late 1970s, the number of killings increased from 17 per 100,000 people in the 1973-1975 period (that is, before large-scale drug cultivation started) to 63 per 100,000 in 1988, which is the third highest rate in the world. Studies on the regional distribution of violence showed that among the 10 most violence-prone regions in Colombia, eight were major cocaine- and marijuana-producing and -trafficking areas. Indeed, the correlation between poverty or inequality and violence was much weaker than the correlation between violence and drug-producing and -trafficking areas.⁶¹

*For this study almost 3,000 males in 14 prisons in the United States were urine tested in 1989. Preference for selection into the testing programme was given to persons charged with serious non-drug-related offences. The test method used detected only drugs used from two to three days prior to arrest, so that actual drug use by arrestees may have been even higher. See Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, vol. 38, No. 45, pp. 780-783.

104. While the link between drugs and crime is well established, studies and opinions of experts differ about how far law enforcement prevents crime by limiting the number of drug abusers. Some researchers even question whether law enforcement may not in fact contribute to an increase in certain kinds of crime such as violent conflicts among dealers for market share and crimes committed by abusers to finance their habit.⁶²

105. The impact of illicit drug abuse and trafficking on law enforcement is both extensive and intensive. At each step along the chain of production, distribution and consumption, illicit drugs have a considerable impact because they divert time, energy and resources away from other responsibilities. The study on costs of drug abuse in California mentioned above showed, for instance, that a drug abuser prior to treatment costs the taxpayer in California on average \$7,940 for the services of the criminal justice system, which is more than one third of total drug-related costs.⁶⁴ Quite apart from those costs, in the event of a well-organized illicit drug industry, there is the danger of police corruption.

106. Though usually the exception, there can be components in law enforcement programmes which actually cost nothing. The asset forfeiture provision of the federal law for crop suppression (mostly cannabis in the State of Kentucky), proved to be such a case in the United States, costing the Government just \$13.7 million, but yielding a return of \$53 million in 1991, that is, almost \$4 in assets seized for every \$1 invested by the Drug Enforcement Administration.⁶³ The general pattern is, however, quite different. Overall United States drug-related law enforcement expenditure (police, courts, prosecution, corrections) by the federal Government and the states was \$12.5 billion in 1991,¹² that is, some 0.2 per cent of the United States GNP. As an absolute number, that figure was higher than the individual GNPs of 125 out of 208 economies in 1991.

107. A much discussed question concerns the links between illicit drug-trafficking organizations and terrorism or insurgent groups, in order to finance operations, gain political support, or undermine an existing Government. There is evidence that a number of insurgent and terrorist organizations deal in illicit drugs for pragmatic, apart from other, reasons. Several, particularly in the coca-growing regions of South America, use their support of the cocaine trade to bolster political positions and to acquire operating funds, even though they may be ideologically opposed to the drug trade itself. Various groups with similar agendas are reported elsewhere: in Central America, Afghanistan, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and Thailand.^{64, 65}

108. Illicit drug funds, laundered or otherwise, may infiltrate the formal economy and subsequently the political system as well, endangering the very foundation and the proper functioning of civil society, leading to social disintegration and anarchy.⁷ In Colombia, drug money seems to have infiltrated the "last crevices of society, politics, the economy, and even cultural and sports activities", including investments into professional soccer teams to gain public support and respect, as well as to have an ideal vehicle for money-laundering.⁷

109. The magnitude of funds under criminal control pose special threats to Governments, particularly in developing countries where the domestic securities and capital markets are far too small to absorb those funds without soon becoming dependent on them.⁴¹ It is difficult to have a functioning democratic system when drug cartels have the means to buy protection, support, or votes at every level of Government and society.¹⁵ In systems where a member of the legislature or the judiciary, earning only modest income, can easily gain the equivalent of some 20 months of salary from a trafficker by making one "favourable" decision, the dangers of corruption are obvious.⁷ Given the already considerable influence of major drug traffickers and their ability to develop popular and political support,⁶⁶ Governments in a number of producer countries have to accommodate to pressure from the traffickers or risk major political unrest. In other words, the drug trade, financing and laundering nexus has created

a perverse situation in which Governments may have to remain passive in the fight against drug trafficking in order to preserve a minimum level of social peace.⁷

IV. ACTIONS REQUIRED BY THE COMMISSION

110. Quite apart from all the limitations inherent in trying to assess the extent of the illicit drug problem, the present report shows that an assessment of the economic and social consequences of the problem is no less difficult. Information about the consequences of drug abuse is inchoate, and very far from conforming to even the most basic of cross-national comparative standards. Yet, fragmented as the information may be, it is imperative that a start be made in the process of converting it into policy-relevant knowledge. Since this knowledge should be cross-national in character, UNDCP appears to be uniquely equipped to synthesize it. In order to make such a synthesis policy-relevant, the guidance of the Commission is needed. The present report, by means of a brief synthesis, seeks to provide the Commission with a framework for assessing policy relevance, as well as guiding the process forward.

111. Since many Member States have a manifest need for a clear assessment of the cost effectiveness of public policy interventions and optimal allocation of public resources in limiting illicit drug production, trafficking and abuse, it is evident that the process of synthesizing information on the economic and social consequences should continue, perhaps even accelerate. Such an analysis is also likely to become a powerful instrument for building a global consensus on better drug control measures. Yet the complexity of the problem, its transnational character and the multiplicity of actors involved all demand a United Nations system-wide effort, using the comparative advantage of the system to continue the integrating and synthesizing process.

112. While research on many specific dimensions of the illicit drug problem has intensified in the last few years, and this trend is likely to continue, there is an imperative need for cross-national cost-benefit analyses, in economic, social and health terms, of illicit drug production, trafficking and consumption. At the same time, there is a commensurate need, equally imperative, to assess the relative costs and benefits, also in cross-national terms, of different drug control policies. The Commission may wish to consider advocating and guiding research in those directions.

113. Finally, arriving at a balanced assessment of the economic and social consequences of the illicit drug problem clearly requires a review of the global impact of three phenomena which are related, but not addressed directly, in the present report: psychoactive pharmaceutical drugs that become illicit as a result of being diverted from licit purposes; illicitly produced synthetic drugs; and chemicals used in the illicit manufacture of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances. The magnitude of the phenomena appears to be considerable, but few measures of their global salience are available. The Commission might therefore wish to secure the basis of a balanced assessment of the entire issue by encouraging studies, along the lines of the present report, of the three complementary areas.

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Annex I

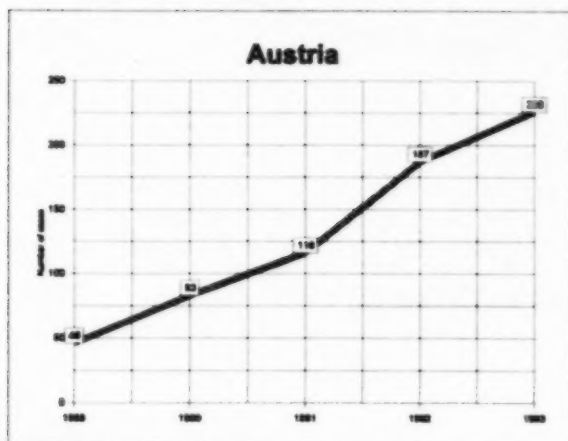
ILLCIT DRUG PRODUCTION

Table 2. Trends in global production of illicit drugs
(1985 = 100)

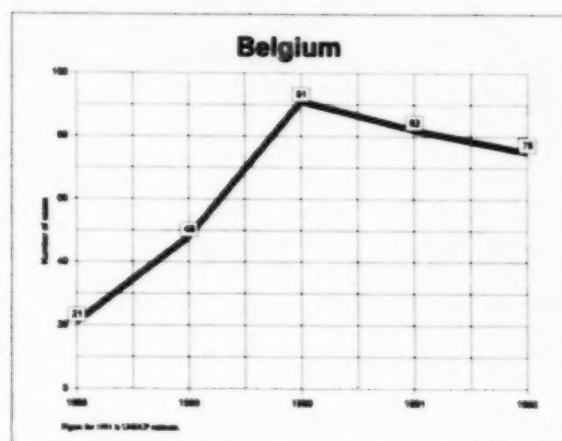
Drug	Unit and index	1985	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
Opium	Tonnes	1 298	2 590	3 698	3 257	3 519	3 409	3 699
	Index	100.0	199.5	284.9	250.9	271.1	262.6	285.0
Coca leaf	Tonnes	143 715	293 700	298 070	305 970	331 140	333 900	271 700
	Index	100.0	204.4	207.4	212.9	230.4	232.3	189.1
Marijuana	Tonnes	7 596	17 455	36 755	25 600	13 465	13 058	14 407
	Index	100.0	229.8	483.9	337.0	177.3	171.9	189.7
Hashish	Tonnes	1 265	1 285	1 490	685	1 130	585 ^a	1 150
	Index	100.0	101.6	117.8	54.2	89.3	46.2	90.9

Source: Bureau of International Narcotics Matters, International Narcotics Control Strategy Report 1994 (Washington, D.C., Department of State, 1994), p. 20. Base-year figures (1985) are averages of the range provided in Bureau of International Narcotics Matters, International Narcotics Control Strategy Report 1986 (Washington, D.C., Department of State, 1986), p. 11.

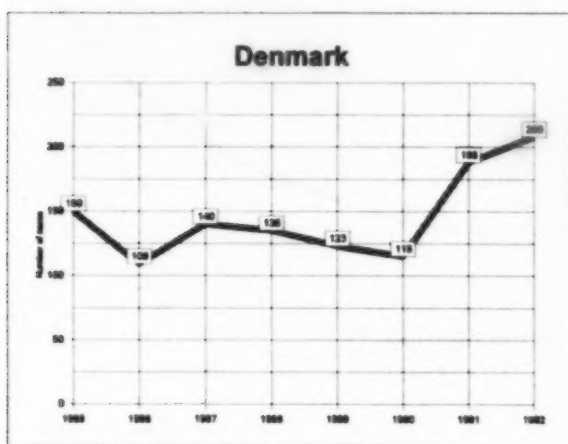
^aFigure does not include Lebanon.

Annex II**SUBSTANCE-ABUSE-RELATED MORTALITY****Figure XVIII. Substance-abuse-related mortality, selected countries and areas****A. Europe**

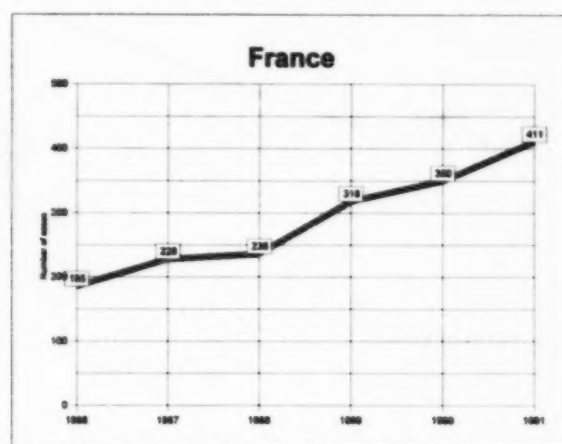
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



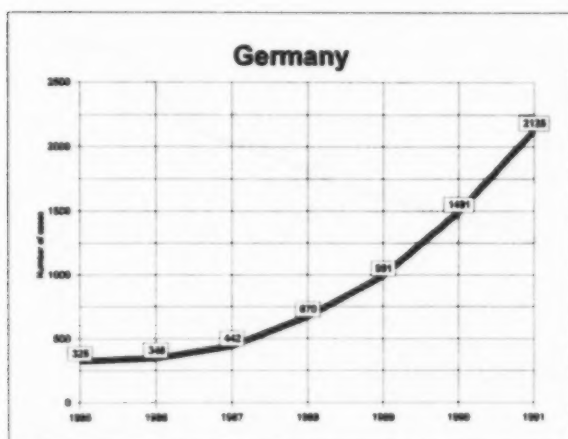
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



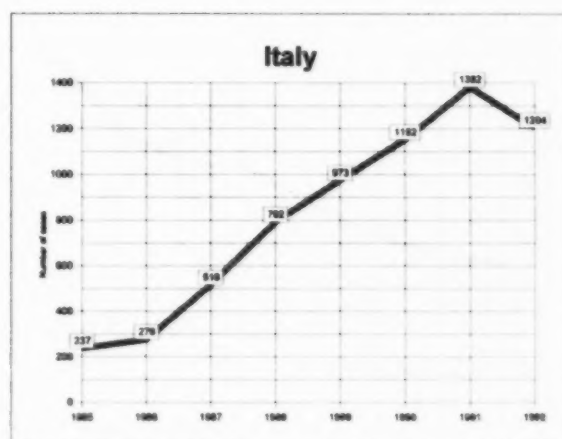
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



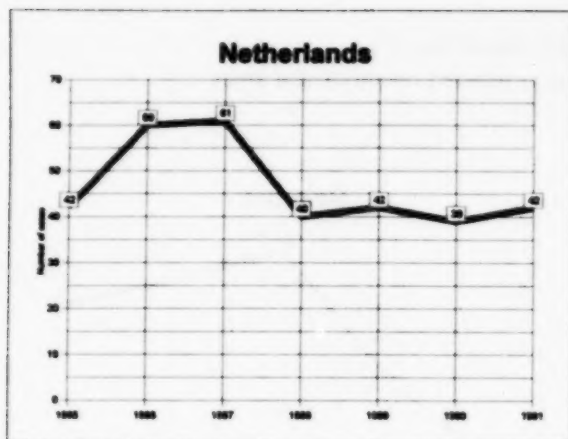
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



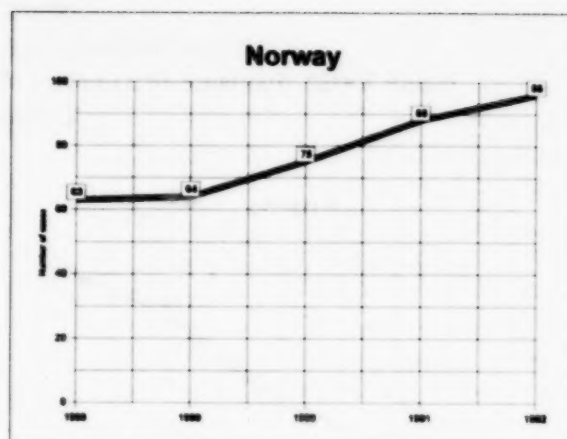
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



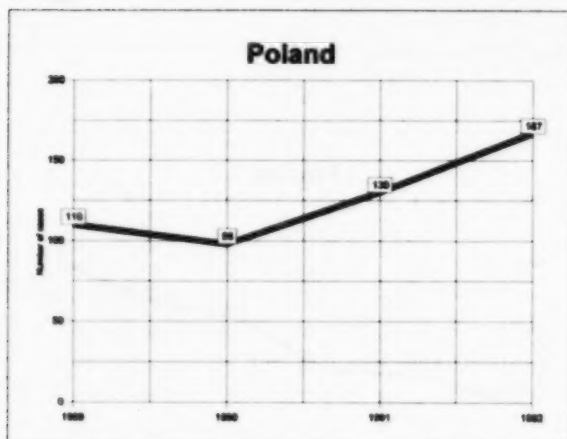
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



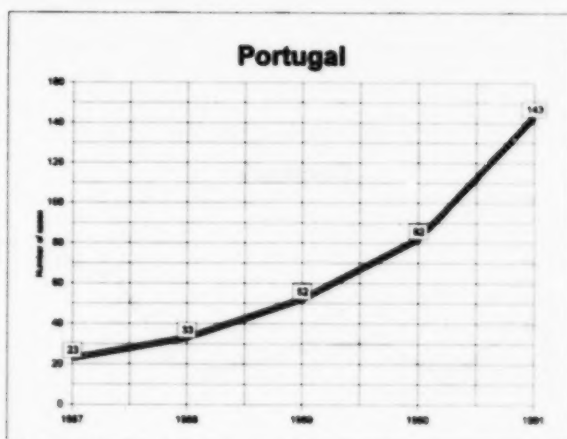
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



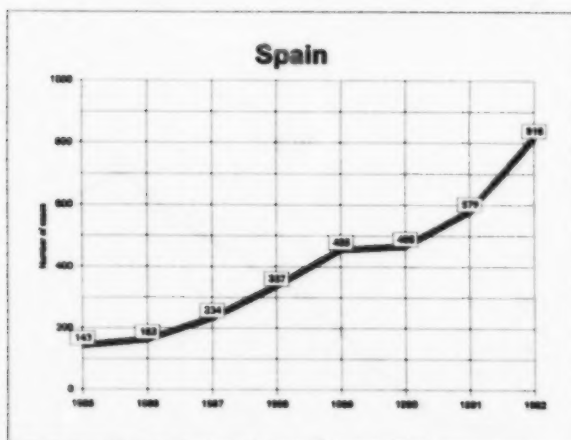
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



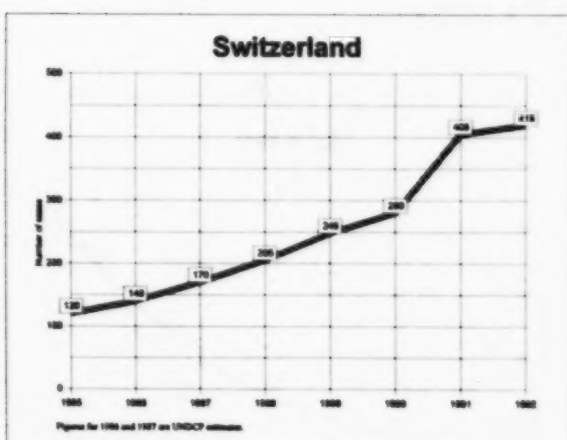
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



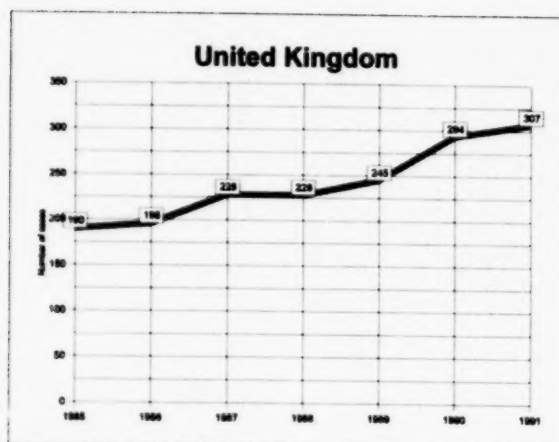
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol

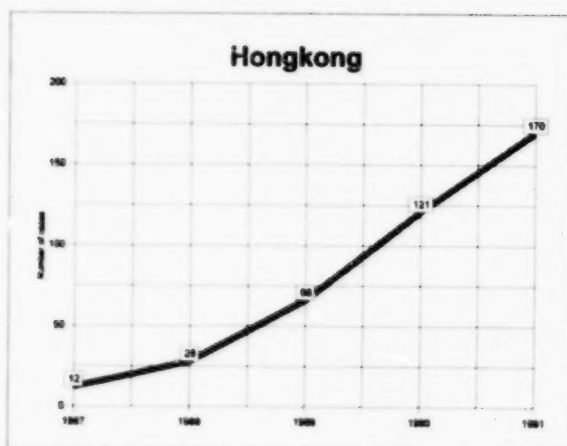


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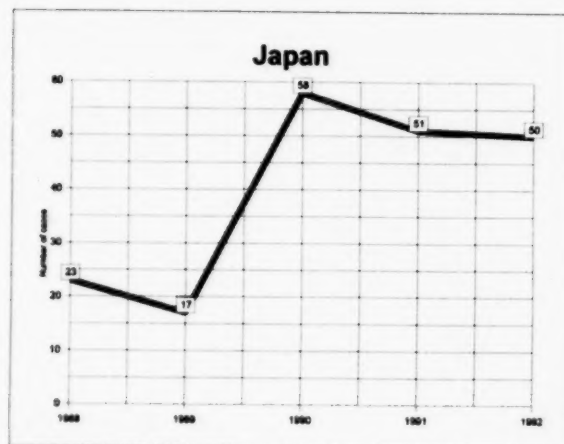


Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol

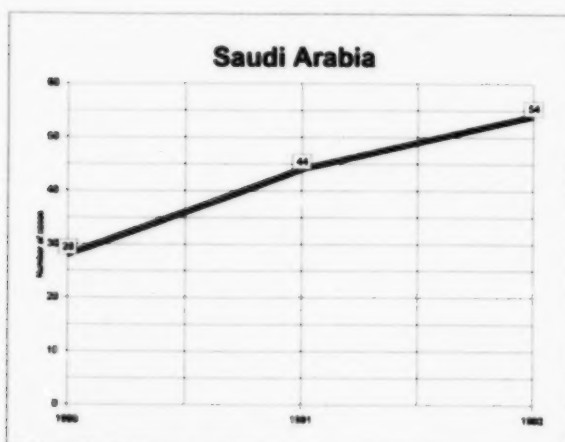
B. Other



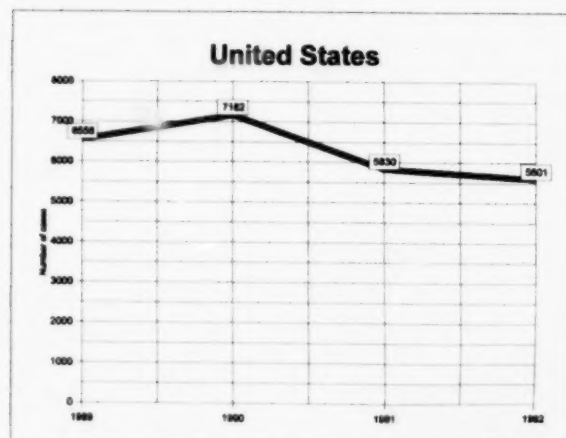
Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol



Sources: UNDCP and ICPO/Interpol